

SEX-ROLES AND SELF-COMPLEXITY AS RELATED TO THE  
MARITAL ADJUSTMENT OF BLACKS AND WHITES

BY

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by

Lainée Maisie James

DEDICATED! ! !

To my mother, Caroline, and my father, Jacob,  
whose marriage of 48 years is symbolic of  
the choices and challenges,  
the struggles and sacrifices,  
the vicissitudes and victories,  
in the union of lives.

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The purpose of this study was to determine whether marital partners' sex-role types and self-complexity were related to their marital adjustments, and whether the differences accounted for by these two variables existed in the marital adjustment of blacks and whites. The three psychological instruments used in the study were the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Inventory which assesses individuals' perceptions of marital adjustment, Bem's Sex-Role Inventory which measures individuals' degree of psychological androgyny, and Ziller's Self-Complexity Scale which measures the complexity of individuals' self-concepts. A demographic data sheet also was used in the study.

Instruments were presented to 300 volunteer couples selected from various church groups, the Volunteer Action Center, and Community Education classes. Usable instruments were collected from 207 couples (113 white and 94 black). Linear regression, chi-square analysis, correlations, and one and two-way analysis of variance and co-variance were used to analyze the data.

Hypothesis One revealed that self-complexity and children accounted for 28 percent of the 31 percent differences found in marital adjustment. Hypothesis Two showed significant associations between sex-role type and race, and between sex-role type and age. Hypothesis Three revealed no significant differences in marital adjustment between the sexes. Hypothesis Four showed significant sex-role type differences in marital adjustment among black couples but not among white couples. Hypothesis Five revealed race differences in marital adjustment. Hypothesis Six showed significant differences in marital adjustment among couples with varying combinations of sex-role type.

These findings indicated a tendency for marital adjustment to increase as self-complexity increased, but to decrease as the number of children increased. Occupation, age, church attendance, years or times married were not significantly related to marital adjustment; only self-complexity, children and occupation were significantly related. Differences in marital adjustment explained by education were present only

among white feminine sex-role type females. There were 41.49 percent androgynous black individuals, while white individuals were almost equally divided among masculine, feminine, and androgynous sex-role types. Whites were more adjusted in marriages than blacks, but within the races, males and females experienced similar adjustment.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

The consensus recurring through almost two decades of literature is that disenchantment characterizes the marital experience. Researchers strongly advocate that a major part of the disenchantment is the negative impact of traditionally defined sex-roles in the marriage relationship (Balswick, 1970; Goodes, 1963; Horner, 1968; Komarovsky, 1964; Page, 1973; Schwartz, 1979; Steinmann, 1975). These sex-roles, along with the self-concept, are powerful determinants in persons' development, socialization, and their identities as males or females (Kaplan & Sedney, 1980; Selcer & Hilton, 1972). They are equally crucial to the level of adjustment in marriage.

Considerable data amassed on masculine and feminine sex-role attributes and role-conflict in marriage suggest that traditional ideas of gender appropriateness are not resulting in well-adjusted marriages. Women especially are dissatisfied with traditionally established roles (Horner, 1968; Page, 1973; Steinmann, 1975). However, both men and women are limited in their adaptability by the imposed sex-role constraints which prevent them from developing flexible behavior repertoires (Bem, 1974; Bem & Lenny, 1976;

Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee & Broverman, 1968; Spence, Helmreich & Strapp, 1975; Storms, 1979).

These issues and trends indicate that sex-role values may require significant restructuring. Bem (1974) and Schwartz (1979) appropriately termed such restructuring and transcendence of traditional sex-roles the experience of the androgynous self. Such a self seems identical to the complex self which the theory of self-complexity affirms is central to quality interpersonal relationships, adaptability and adjustment. It is a self which allows men and women to identify with, positively value, and adapt to a flexible perspective to accommodate a variety of changes, some of which are certain to occur in the marriage relationship.

### Background

The quality of marital relationships continues to be the most widely studied topic in the field of marriage and family counseling (Spanier & Lewis, 1980). Of critical concern is the extensive controversy over the possible effects of wives' employment on these relationships. Some researchers have suggested that the rising divorce rate may be a function of wives' increasing employment outside the home (Byrne, 1977; Molinoff, 1977).

Between 1960 and 1973, the proportion of women in the labor force rose from 33.9 to 44.7 percent. Changing rates in labor force participation among married women largely



accounted for the increase (Locksley, 1980). During that same period, the pattern of divorce was also on the rise. In 1975, the incidence of divorce per 1,000 married women 14 and over in the United States increased to 20.3 compared to 9.2 in 1960 (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1976). These figures approximate Maracek's (1979) report that in 1964 the ratio of divorce to new marriages was one to four. By 1974, the rate was one divorce for every 2.3 marriages. U.S. Department of Education and Welfare estimated that 1,122,000 divorces were granted in 1978, an approximate rate of one divorce for every two marriages. By 1979, the rate escalated to 37 percent for first marriages and 60 percent for remarriages.

Feminists argue that equalizing women's representation in the labor force can help restore their rights and improve marriage conditions which are peculiarly oppressive to women (Bernard, 1971; Chesler, 1972; Komarovsky, 1946). As a consequence of their increasing participation in virtually every stratum of the occupational hierarchy, married women's status, identity, and social position are increasingly being determined by their own accomplishments in education, occupation, and income (Featherman & Hauser, 1976; Oppenheimer, 1977). These are the accomplishments in conjunction with the husbands which co-determine the social position of the marriage and its consequent level of adjustment.

Hornung and McCullough (1981) contend that the hierarchical arrangements which define the individual's position within the social order have been shown to be significant factors in personal happiness, mate selection and subsequent marital adjustment. Scanzoni and Fox (1980) note that sex-role preferences help to account for the power which is obviously intrinsic to the general model of gender relations. Scanzoni (1978) further suggests that the gradual change in the meaning of work for women, and the concomitant consequences that employment has on the women and the family will influence marital bargaining, power and conflict.

In contrast, sociologists have suggested that husbands' work commitments strain the marital relationships, especially in single worker families; that this situation accounts for wives' frustrations with their comparative lack of control over their families' social and economic situation and their own activities and interests (Aldous, 1969; Feldberg & Kohen, 1976). Feminists take the position that these sexist labor divisions are not biological necessities but rather the reflection of reactionary ideas, particularly bourgeois individualism, which have gone unchecked, unchallenged and unchanged to become deeply entrenched in the social fabric (Salaam, 1979).

Evidence also reveals that gender preferences regarding roles are gradually becoming less traditional (Holter, 1980). There is a strong preference for egalitarianism between the

sexes in terms of both household and external behaviors. It seems reasonable to assume that the decline in benefits which women seem to obtain from following the traditional female role must be instrumental in creating striking changes in sex-roles and consequently in marriage.

In the 1980's there continues to be a strong movement among researchers attempting to discover new correlates which may help explain some of the variance in marriage relations (Olson, Russell & Sprenkle, 1980). The rising controversy over sex-roles makes it a variable which cannot be ignored. If men and women regard the traditional sex-roles expected of them as self-defeating (Goodes, 1963; Schwartz, 1979), then these roles may not be consistent with socially changing realities.

#### Statement of the Problem

Researchers strongly advocate that a major part of the disenchantment in marriage is the negative impact of traditionally defined sex-roles in the marriage relationship (Balswick, 1970; Schwartz, 1979; Steinmann, 1975). These sex-roles exist as perpetrators of inequality in marriages and impediments to marital adjustment. They have erected barriers which have inhibited the development of flexible and complex selves in individuals.

Recent evidence, however, reveals that gender preferences regarding sex-roles are becoming less traditional

(Holter, 1980). Some of the changes created by these changing roles may be related to the level of adjustment in marriages. Despite these assumptions, the literature has no evidence that the joint effect of sex-roles and self-complexity has never been explored relative to marriage relationships. Moreover, evidence is unavailable as to how such demographic variables as age, years of marriage, number of children, education and race might be related to sex-roles and self-complexity in the context of marital adjustment. These are the concerns which are central to this research.

#### Need for the Study

There is need for empirical evidence to substantiate and validate some of the previously mentioned assumptions and research about the relationship of sex-roles to marital adjustment. In the same context, there is need to test the theory of self-complexity. Results obtained from this study could enable marriage counselors to understand problems which may be directly related to conflicts of couples' sex-role types and self-complexities. Results can enable counselors to translate findings in direct investigation of a couple's system rather than mere presenting problems.

A review of the literature indicates that with limited exception, research on marriage has centered on middle-class white Americans. History and current demographic trends indicate that black marriages may be experiencing different

levels of adjustment than white marriages (Spanier & Glick, 1980). Since history and sociology have shown that blacks, more than any other race or nationality, have been subject to social change, research on middle-class white Americans would be limited in its generalizability to blacks.

The predominance of university student samples in the literature indicates that there is need for larger scale community samples to allow for more generalizations of research results. Such a concern reflects the bias of reviewers and editors that larger samples are needed for more profitable research (Spanier & Lewis, 1980).

As a result of the findings of this research, counselors may be better able to help couples realize some of the social changes in terms of sex-roles and self-complexity which they are unaware might be affecting their relationships. Couples may be helped to explore different ways of negotiating their relationships while utilizing their own potential. These factors should prove especially useful in pre-marital counseling, enabling individuals to have more realistic expectations of their partners and themselves.

By documenting historical trends in marital adjustment, the above discussion establishes the need for the study. It provides the context within which to examine the extent to which partners' sex-roles and self-complexities are related to their marital adjustment. The literature has no

evidence that the joint effect of these two personality variables has ever been explored, particularly within black and white marriages. Hopefully as a result of this study, improved relationships will begin for many, and new levels of awareness will emerge for marriage counseling.

### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine a) whether marital partners' sex-role types and their self-complexities were related to their marital adjustment, and b) whether the differences accounted for by these two variables existed in the marital adjustment of blacks and whites. Marital adjustment was investigated by use of the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Inventory. Sex-role types were measured by Bem's Sex Role Inventory. Self-Complexity was measured by Ziller's Self-Complexity Scale.

### Definitions of Terms

The following definitions will be used in this study:

Androgyny--The equal endorsement of both masculine and feminine personality characteristics in an individual (Bem, 1974). The androgynous sex-role is determined by an individual's approximately equally high masculinity and femininity scores on the Bem's Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

Femininity--Traditionally, characteristics which have been associated with extreme sensitivity, high anxiety, a strong need for security, low social acceptance, nurturance and warmth (Consentino & Heilbrun, 1964). The feminine sex-role is determined by the t-ratio of persons' femininity score being significantly higher than their masculinity score on the BSRI.

Masculinity--Traditionally, qualities which depict high self-esteem, positive emotional state, high social functioning, the capacity for status, self-acceptance, leadership and competence (Mussen, 1969). It is determined by the t-ratio of persons' masculinity score on the BSRI, being significantly higher than their femininity score.

Marital Adjustment--The subjective evaluation of a relationship between two marriage partners (Lewis & Spanier, 1979). The level of marital adjustment is determined by the frequency of agreement both spouses experience on priorities and values such as finances, sex and equality in decision-making on the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (L-W).

Self-Complexity--The degree of differentiation of the self, or the number of facets of the self perceived by the individual (Ziller, Martell & Morrison, 1977). The complexity of the self is measured by the number of adjectives individuals check as descriptive of the self on the Self-Complexity Scale (SC). It is anticipated that individuals with complex self-concepts will consider a greater number of stimuli

(adjectives) as potentially associated with the self.

Sex-Role Type--The exhibition of a high level of those characteristics considered discriminate for a particular sex and a low degree of those characteristics considered to be cross-sexed (Spence & Helmreich, 1979).

"Typol"--The spouses' sex-role type achieved through the blending of any two of the varying combinations of Bem's masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated sex-role types.

#### Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The remainder of this study will be organized into four chapters. Chapter Two will present literature which is related to the focus of the study. Chapter Three will describe the methodology used in the study. Chapter Four will present the results of the study and discuss the results. Chapter Five will contain a conclusion, implications for research and practice, a summary, and recommendations for further research.



## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Five topics related to the focus of this study will be included in the review of literature. First, studies relating to marital adjustment will be presented. Second, studies concerned with sex-roles and the impact of stereotyping will be discussed. Third, the concept of androgyny, its relationship to roles, and its impact on adjustment will be examined. Fourth, the theory of self-complexity, its relatedness to the self-concept, and its likely effects on marital adjustment will be described and explained. Fifth, a look at social changes and what such changes may mean to marriage will be explored. A summary statement will be included at the end of the review.

#### Marital Adjustment

Marital adjustment is a term used to describe "good" and "bad" aspects of the marriage relationship. A well-adjusted marriage is defined as one in which attitudes and acts of each partner produce an environment favorable to the personality of each other primarily in the sphere of the marital relationship (Burgess & Cottrell, 1939). It has also been described as those changes in the attitude and behavior of husbands and wives which mutually fulfill the

marital expectations and wishes to make for successful marital interaction (Burgess & Wallin, 1953).

A well-adjusted marriage has been defined as a process by which spouses have the opportunity to become well-integrated persons via their cooperation, comradeship, their similar attitudes and capacities (Landis & Landis, 1963). Bancroft (1975) further defined a well-adjusted marriage as a factor which relies on the reciprocity of behaviors, with healthy adjustment at the higher end of the continuum and negative reciprocity signalling disturbed relationship at the lower.

Spanier (1976) defined marital adjustment as a process determined by the cohesion between the married couple, the agreement on matters affecting the functioning of the marital unit, and the dyadic satisfaction and troublesome differences in the handling of interpersonal tensions and anxieties. It is measurable by the amount of effective and open communication as well as the frequency of the affective aspects of the relationship (Hicks & Platt, 1970), and the amount of spouse agreement on major issues, common interests and the presence or absence of complaints (Burgess & Cottrell, 1939).

After six decades of research, though a basic understanding of the concept is assumed, researchers still do not have an agreed upon definition. This absence of an agreed upon definition caused Lively (1969) to call for an abandonment of the synonymous concepts "marital success,"

"marital happiness" and "marital adjustment." He contended that the terms implied "good" and "bad" states of marriage which by their very nature involve evaluative interpretations of data, resulting in personally and culturally biased definitions of marriage. Further, he argued that the terms imply a built-in assumption of static periods which can be determined and maintained in a position incompatible with the definition and interpretation of marriage. Since marriage stresses changes in values, patterns and process, and a dynamic pattern of continuity among members, any built-in assumption of static periods seems incompatible with marital adjustment.

Lively (1969) later agreed that a marriage may be adjusted but not happy. He implied that the confusion surrounding "marital success" and "marital happiness" may not be implicitly applied to "marital adjustment"; the fact being, that a marriage does not have to be necessarily happy or successful to be adjusted. Although adjustment, like happiness and success, implies highly personable, unique and often unconscious feelings, individuals can satisfy their needs and arrive at their own adjustable level of functioning (Rossi, 1965; Schvanedveldt, 1966).

### Measuring Marital Adjustment

Issues on definition of marital adjustment are matched by questions concerning the adequacy, practicality, and reliability of measuring marital adjustment. Considerable

controversy surrounds the self-report questionnaire which is the most frequently used assessment tool in marital adjustment (Margolin, 1978; Waller & Hill, 1959; Winch, Ktsanes & Ktsanes, 1955). Glick and Gross (1975) cited the lack of an objective, systematic frame of reference to ensure the absence of distortion of perception as the main weakness of the questionnaire.

Orden and Bradburn (1968) reported findings which indicated that individuals' assessment of their marriage was a reasonable, valid, and stable measure of marital happiness. However, they criticized the simple and direct self-rating scale on the grounds that most couples rate themselves as very happy. Patterns from the literature do not substantiate the criticism that most couples rate themselves as very adjusted.

Waller and Hill (1959) observed that most tests designed to measure concepts such as marital adjustment are based on samples which are extremely biased in many aspects. Hence, scores may often reflect the extent to which a couple is or is not reflecting the norms of the sample studies. But such are the limitations of research. Consistency of differences in repeated research would give justification for the development of instruments normed on other samples which will measure values other than those reflected in current instruments.

Those who advocate the experimental method and projective techniques (Inselberg, 1964; O'Brien, 1976) must also be aware that regardless of the sophisticated measurements used (i.e., Rorschach, TAT, MMPI or other projected techniques) the outcome is much the same; people's disenchantment with their roles in marriage seems to be contributing to the failure of the marriage institution. Moreover, these measures which are regarded as sophisticated are guaranteed no safeguards or immunity against distortion.

Gordon and Allport (in Sellitz, Johoda, Deutsch & Cook, 1959, p. 236) put it most succinctly:

If we want to know how people feel; what they experience and what they remember, what their emotions and motives are like, and the reasons for acting as they do . . . why not ask them.

Questionnaires afford the most direct route to individuals' introspection about behavior or feeling (Levinger, 1963). They are economical and focused. Reports on the procedures, methods and resulting samples in many studies indicate that the anonymity afforded individuals in questionnaires allows for more objectivity, honesty, and the decision to participate.

#### Research on Marital Adjustment

Early research on marital adjustment was primarily concerned with evaluating specific attributes of each spouse and correlating those attributes with a measure of marital

adjustment (Burgess & Cottrell, 1939; Hamilton, 1929; Terman, 1938). Among the external variables frequently examined were children, frequency of sex, age, vocation, degree of affection, communication, socio-economic status, educational level, quality and characteristics of parents' marriage. Studies for the most part have been inconclusive.

Among the most surprising summaries of the marital research was the conclusion that children tended to detract rather than contribute to the marital quality of couples (Hicks & Platt, 1970; Landis & Landis, 1963; Renne, 1970). Females reported significantly greater difficulties than males because of the presence of children; black parents reported slightly greater problems than whites (Feldman, 1971; Hobbs & Cole, 1976; Hobbs & Wimbish, 1977). Other researchers failed to find any relationship between marital adjustment and the presence or absence of children (Bernard, 1934; Figley, 1973; Hamilton, 1929).

Relationship between age and marital adjustment has been shown to positively correlate (De Lissovoy, 1973; Lee, 1977). Davis (1929) reported a difference of 5.4 years between the age means of 872 happily married women compared to 116 who were unhappily married. Hamilton (1929) and Terman (1938) reported that adjustment and satisfaction in marriage were equal over subjects age range.

A strong relationship between the quality of marital communication and couples' marital adjustment is supported

by research (Ard & Ard, 1969; Horowitz, 1977; O'Brien, 1976; Rutledge, 1975; VanZoost, 1973). Self-disclosure and exploration were reported as indices of the closeness of the relationship, the quality of the couples' shared emotional experience, and the degree of marital adjustment (Carkhuff, 1971; Levinger & Senn, 1967). The establishment of good communication was reported as crucial among the tasks facing the newly married couples and one of the primary factors which ensure an enriched marriage (Rogers, 1972).

Clinical evidence supports the fact that faulty communication is a central problem plaguing couples entering marriage counseling, that communication skills have been successfully used in marriage therapy, and that there is need for therapists working toward the goal of marital adjustment to pay more attention to couples' style of communication (Alger & Hogan, 1967; Pierce, 1973; Speers, 1964; VanZoost, 1973).

A consistent relationship has also been found between higher educational level and the probability of good marital adjustment (Muller & Pope, 1977; Udry, 1974). However, when the wife was educated and the husband was not, less adjustment was associated with differences in education. Since educational attainment relates to so many other variables, (economic success, age at marriage, etc.) such a relationship can be misleading.

Udry (1974) cited the findings of an 18 year longitudinal study of married couples, whose marriages were characterized by constancy in the husbands' personality and great change in the wives'. He observed a reversed pattern in unhappy marriages; wives' personalities were constant, and husbands' changed. Udry concluded that wives, more than husbands, determined marital adjustment, for adjustment was related to the wives' ability to adapt and change to the marital relationship.

Can the increase in marital breakdown, as evidenced by the rising divorce rates, signal a reflection of women's growing refusal to adapt to traditional roles in marriage? The Rapoport et al. (1970) in-depth report of five representative dual-career families may provide a partial answer. In describing how the changing norms in regard to work and marriage are affecting marital adjustment, they described five sets of dilemmas now affecting that adjustment: namely, over-load, norms, identity, social network, and role cycling. When couples in their study mastered these dilemmas, gratification came to the relationship. If Rapoport's findings provide any indication of what may be happening to the greater percent of marriages as more women enter the work force, there remain questions as to how well couples are mastering these dilemmas.



## Blacks and Marital Adjustment

Because of a predominance of white middle class samples, most of the studies on marital adjustment are limited in their applicability to other races or classes. Earlier in Chapter One, couples were described as complicated products of their education, family values, color and socio-economic status. As it relates to blacks, Burgess and Locke (1945, p. 242) capture the cold realities:

The Negro race more than any other race or nationality has been subject to social change. Its modification under successive crises, of transplantation from Africa, slavery, sudden emancipation and migration to cities, must be studied to get an understanding of its present day status and problems in the United States. . . . In this country, Negro behavior needs to be seen in the perspective of race relation, as they find expression in slavery, in a caste system, in economic and political discrimination and in residential segregation. Even more significant is an appreciation of racial attitudes and opinions as they involve conceptions of the role and behavior of the white and Negro . . . chief among these is the tendency to think of the Negro in terms of categories and stereotypes. If the diversified historic pattern of Blacks is symbolic of their extremes of variation, it not only rules out uniformity in behavior, but focuses on expected variations in marriage.

Burgess and Locke may have written 36 years ago but their thesis is still central to many black situations.

McCurdy's (1978) economically comparative study of 78 blacks, 96 Chicanos and 82 whites examined sex-roles, family problems and decision-making practices in marital satisfaction. McCurdy found no support for the hypothesis that Chicano and black wives will most frequently be dominant

while white couples will be equalitarian. Findings showed blacks differing in their perception of sex-roles; whites differed in their perception of marital satisfaction.

Eberstein and Frisbie's (1978) recent study of 9,081 Mexican Americans, 7,018 blacks and 7,100 whites, investigated marital solidarity in the 1960's and 70's. The researchers found marital instability lowest among Mexicans, followed by Anglos and greatest for blacks. Other literature supports greater equalitarianism in black as compared to white marriages (Scanzoni, 1975; Steinmann & Fox, 1969).

Finally, Weisman's (1973) survey study of 1,651 black adults revealed that contrary to much of popular thinking, neither female-headed families nor economically-active wives are found to be the consequences of cross-generation influences. Weisman's conclusions challenge literature on the black family which overrate the role of female dominance in perpetuating inequality in black marriages. The conclusions revealed that socio-economic status rather than wives' employment influenced marital adjustment. The conclusions also supported Jamrozky's (1975) findings of impairment of decision-making and low adjustment in low socio-economic groups, a process which was not impaired in the middle socio-economic group.

#### Marital Adjustment and Mate Selection

Although considerably less attention has been given to the unique characteristics of persons and the process which

preclude their marriage, an examination of mate selection seems basic and appropriate to some understanding of the complexities of marital adjustment. Burgess and Wallin (1953) propose five theories as a base for persons' selection of mates. Two of those theories seem appropriate to this study. The first is the theory of propinquity which posits that positive association is the result of residential or other proximity; the second is homogamy, the tendency of those with similar characteristics to be attracted to each other.

The theory of homogamy is supported by Blazer (1963) in his study of 60 young married couples using the Edwards Personality Preference Schedule. It is also supported in Burgess and Wallin's (1953) study of 1,000 couples examining race, religion, leisure and socio-economic interests. Both studies found that mate selection was much more a function of the similarities in the couples than differences in their personalities. Implied support also comes from King's (1974) proposition that self-actualized people choose self-actualized persons.

Contrary to Burgess and Blazer, Winch's (1958) theory of complementary needs is built on the idea that people choose mates with deep-seated characteristics very different from their own. Hence Winch sees individuals using mate selection to find their missing elements and fulfill their deficiencies through another's personality. Bowman (1960) in his studies of 60 upper-middle class married

college couples, 36 engaged and 64 recently married couples disapproved the theory as inadequately grounded empirically.

Coombs (1968) took a position somewhere between the two previous theories that 1) persons with similar backgrounds share similar values, 2) sharing similar backgrounds lead to positive interaction, 3) the relationship between two people becomes self perpetuating based on feelings of mutual satisfaction. Segfried and Hendrich (1973) maintained that attraction between the sexes is based on reciprocal role attitudes rather than personality dimensions. Hence, a highly feminine female and a highly masculine male may be attracted to each other because they have clear role expectations of each other. The theory subtly supports Winch's theory for choices likely to be made by individuals steep in the sex-role traditions of behavior.

### Blacks and Mate Selection

Theoretical perspectives often change amid situational realities. Recent social demography of blacks indicates a relatively unbalanced ratio of males to females in the mate selection age range (Bureau of Census, 1975). Compared to white women, black women are in greater proportion in the labor force; they are marrying earlier, having more children and sharing more of the economic burden. Moreover at every age range, black males have a disproportionately higher mortality rate than black females (U.S. Bureau of Census, in Spanier & Glick, 1980).

What are the speculations for such imbalance in sex ratios between blacks and whites? How may the imbalance help to account for differential in patterns of mate selection and marital adjustment? At the risk of simplifying a very complex issue, Staples (1979) summarizes that black men experience a higher morbidity and mortality rate, having twice the mortality rate of black women between ages 15-30, while prison, homicide, suicide, drugs, homosexuality and unemployment have reduced the number of eligible men available to black females.

The 1975 estimate of resident population showed:

11 percent more black females than males in the 20-24 year age group; among whites there were approximately equivalent numbers of males and females. For persons in the 25-29 year age-group, black females were 16 percent more numerous than males. The percentage increased to more than 19 percent for blacks in the 30-34 year age cohort. Yet the ratio of white males to females remained nearly constant across the age group, close to 100 . . . among whites the sex ratio does not drop below 100 until 32 years of age, whereas for blacks, women outnumber men beginning at age 18. (U.S. Bureau of Census, in Spanier & Glick, 1980, p. 708).

The foregoing statistics are provocative, if not disheartening. They do suggest a relatively restricted field of black males for black females in the mate selection period. Hence, as a consequence of these black-male black-female differences, blacks are more likely to differ from proposed theories and powerful norms surrounding marital adjustment.

Demographic facts lead to several poignant questions. What are the consequences of such disparity upon men and women approaching marriage? Given the relatively restricted number of black males in similar age cohorts, are not black women more likely to marry men at lower social, educational statuses than themselves? Are not larger numbers of black women than white women expected to marry men significantly older, younger, or divorced? Does not the potential importance of these questions suggest extreme pressure upon black men and women to violate marital stereotype norms?

If mate selection is indicative of the quality of marital interaction and adjustment (Spanier, 1976), then on the basis of existing norms, many blacks may already have by necessity entered marriage with a deficit. This deficit may help explain the adequately documented marital disruption many researchers see characterizing the race. Implications from such theories are that such differentials must affect marital adjustment. However, it would seem that sub-cultures will often have to develop their own norms to support the realities generated by their demographic differences. These are the complexities of marital history and demography against which sex-roles will be examined.

### Sex-Roles

Research indicates that sex-roles are largely socialized processes which begin at birth. Early socialization

of the child as masculine or feminine is marked by sharp distinctions of color, chores, parental expectations, the giving of privileges and even the sharing of parental affection (Rheingold & Cook, 1975). Green (1974), Stroller (1974) and Kagan and Moss (1961) support the theory of early development of masculinity and femininity. The theorists posit that basic gender identification is fixed by age two although sex-role characteristics and the values attached to these categories continue to change as a function of family, culture and significant others.

For Block (1973) and other social learning theorists (Green, 1974; Mischel, 1966; Stroller, 1974), sex-roles are largely a function of reactivity and imitation of behaviors. Hence, as children observe the varying behaviors of males and females, they pattern behaviors of individuals whom they resemble physically. The performance or continuation of the behaviors acquired by observing role models will depend on motivation and anticipated consequences. Thus, social constraints may be responsible for the on-going attribution of certain behaviors to certain sexes (Kaplan & Sedney, 1980).

The acquiring of sex-roles is strongly supported as the result of selectively reinforcing the child in sexually implicit ways (Block, Von der Lippe & Block, 1973). Findings from this research indicated that 1) high-masculine/high-socialized and high-feminine/high-socialized

individuals came from families with traditional role patterns; 2) low-masculine/high-socialized, low-feminine/high-socialized were from families where a variety of alternative roles suggested an androgynous trend; 3) high-masculine/low-socialized, high-feminine/low-socialized individuals were from families where the same sex parent rejected the child and offered an inadequate model for identification; 4) low-masculine/low-socialized, low-feminine/low-socialized individuals were from families experiencing conflict and psychopathology. These findings suggest that sex-role stereotyping is a function of modeling of the same sex parent and the culturally approved or disapproved behavior in the family or culture.

Support for the impact of culture upon the development of sex-roles is found in Selcer and Hilton's (1972) investigation of the attitudes of children from traditional and non-traditional cultures. Findings showed children from non-traditional families behaving in ways significantly different from the stereotype masculine and feminine role patterns. Biller's (1971) examination of children having androgynous characteristics showed that boys in families where fathers were absent were aggressive and competitive. However, they were more dependent and nurturant than boys whose fathers were in the home. Daughters in these fatherless families also were more independent and assertive and looked toward roles other than home-makers. Though



additional studies are needed to examine the assertion, Biller's implication is that sex-role is a function of psychological conditions existing in a particular setting.

Finally, cognitive developmental theorists explain sex-role development as a cognitive process where boys and girls are able to see themselves physically and mold their behavior to maintain a stable sense of sex-identity (Kaplan & Sedney, 1980). The latter process evolves into a conceptualization of male and female sex-roles, a much more differentiated and mature approach. Regardless of the theoretical framework, the conclusion is that sex-roles are taught, learned and culturally reinforced by the significant others in deciding the quality male or female.

#### Masculinity, Femininity: The Universality of Sex-role Stereotypes and Sex-bias

Traditionally, femininity has been associated with extreme sensitivity, high anxiety, a strong need for security, low social acceptance, nurturance, and warmth (Consentino & Heilbrun, 1964). The more highly prized masculinity has been associated with aggressiveness, independence, confidence, competence, leadership, logic and the ability to hide emotions (Dinitz, Dyness & Clarke, 1954; Sherriffs & McKee, 1957). Attributes of physical prowess, physical attractiveness, and vocational issues related to male and female college students were examined by Seeman (1950). Results indicated that both men and

women saw athletic prowess and vocational success more important to men and physical attractiveness more important to women.

Fernberger's (1948) systematic survey exploration of graduates and undergraduates' sex-role attitudes at Pennsylvania State University revealed that both men and women believed that men were more intelligent; that women were more talkative, passionate, sensitive, and the key factor in disturbed relationships. Men also felt that women's position in relationships was secondary. Fernberger concluded that sex-bias was universal and independent of sex. Twenty years later, Neufeld et al. (1974) replication of the two previous studies showed no changes in sex-role stereotype perceptions between college students of 1948-50 and those of 1974. The authors concluded that sex-role stereotypes may reflect long lasting basic sex differences.

Steinmann and Fox's (1969) study of women in urban industrial communities of North and South America adds evidence to the universality of sex-bias. Research showed both types of women believing that a man's ideal woman would be conventional, placing home and family over external achieving goals. A difference was noted in the North American woman who felt the need for a vocation, a sense of fulfillment outside the family.

By 1975 Steinmann's research showed contemporary woman experiencing the dilemma of wanting to "do her own

thing" while wanting to remain feminine and desirable. His concept of the dilemma is documented in Goodes (1963) earlier findings, that the trend toward equalitarianism in sex-roles and relationships is reflected by the rapid rise of women in the work force amid internalized stereotyped beliefs which undermine adjustment in behavior.

Further documentation of the women's dilemma also is given in Page's (1973) findings that women's high levels of real of imaginary anxiety and fear of success were related to their anticipation of social disapproval in the competitive male dominated work world. Tomlinson-Kersey (1974) also supports the women's dilemma theory, that there does exist a conflict between society's role demands for females and their personal aspirations.

In his utilization of the TAT to investigate the psychological barriers women face in their attempts to achieve success in a career, 65 of Horner's (1968) female subjects had definitive motives for avoiding success. His findings showed that many women abandoned career exploration because of feelings of inadequacy and insecurity. They had internalized the belief that the concept of success was associated with competition and aggressive masculine traits. Twelve years later, his findings are supported by Frank, Anderson & Rubenstein (1980).

Some researchers have shown that even when married male and female graduates are flexible in their behavior, both

still hold on to dominant traditional beliefs regarding the female role (Komarvosky, 1973; Komarvosky, 1976; Rapoport, Payne & Steinmann, 1970). These internalized sex-stereotyped beliefs are causing inequality and strife in the marital relationship, affecting people's self-esteem, psychological well-being, individuality and mental health (Arafat & Yorburg, 1973; Garnets & Pleck, 1979; Gove, 1972; Gurin, Veroff & Feld, 1960; Miller & Mothner, 1971; Neulinger, 1968).

When Baruch's (1974) sample of college women showed cognitive development significantly associated with the degree of femininity while their scores were least likely to gain in IQ, he concluded that a genuine sense of self-worth and confidence in the women were related to the negative evaluation of traditional feminine role and the personality traits for which society recognizes them. Schwartz (1979) captured the essence of the negative impact of sex-roles when he observed that the restrictions of such roles upon the ego-ideal manifest themselves destructively in the interpersonal dyad, constricting ranges of experience and stunting individual growth.

### Blacks and the Politics of Sex-Role Stereotypes

Black marriage relationships are compounded by the politics of sexual stereotypes. The stereotype images most frequently portrayed of black women are those of

"non-feminist" incorporating the matriarchy idea, "depreciated sex object," "the loser," "invisible," "tough," "hard-working domestics" (King, 1976). These "losers" are in sharp contrast to the American white woman described as "small," "delicate" and "light" (Lifton, 1965). This is the background of racism against which the black female stereotyped is portrayed. Such images which stifle and destroy the very self-esteem, respect, and aspirations of many are bound to impose psychological constraints. Perhaps black females may already have experienced these constraints.

King (1976) labels as mythical the concept of black womens' dominance in the home which has resulted in implied negative consequences for black men. Consequences such as low educational achievement, inability to earn a living for his family, personality disorders and delinquency are named. Her findings are supported by Hill (1976) whose research showed equalitarianism in decision-making and expected tasks characterizing most black families regardless of socio-economic status. Hill's findings also showed 85 percent of the husbands in poor black families out-earning their wives.

Implications from the literature are that families, the work world, and varying cultures have decreed the fundamental distinction between the sexes. They have established inequality, and have succeeded in permeating a level of racial inequality with black roles subordinate

to whites. This factor is certain to impact upon the adjustment level in black marriages. Fortunately, although stereotyping still characterizes much of individuals' behaviors, a trend towards revising or blending sex-roles has been emerging. The blend is termed androgyny.

### Androgyny

Bem's (1974) hybrid model of psychological androgyny challenges the traditional bi-polar conception of masculinity and femininity. It was first introduced and operationalized in academic psychology (Bem, 1974, 1975) and was also used by Block (1973). Originating from the Greek words "andro" meaning male and "gyne" meaning female, androgyny has been defined as the high combined presence of socially masculine and feminine sex appropriate characteristics in an individual (Bem, 1976) which manifests itself in personality, life-style and behaviors (Bem, 1974; Kaplan & Sedney, 1980). The construct postulates an orthogonal uni-polar dimension between masculinity and femininity.

### Cross-Sex Behavior and Gender Identity

In her examination of sex-role identity, Bem (1976) argues that masculinity and femininity represent complementary domains of positive traits and behavior. In principle, Bem sees the individual capable of exhibiting what is stereotypically masculine or feminine, expressive or instrumental,

communal or agenetic, depending on situational appropriateness. The essence of Bem's arguments indicates that androgynous persons are those who seek to keep open for themselves the full range of human emotions and behavior but are able to choose the most appropriate response for any situation, feeling confidence in the freedom to choose. Bem recognizes this freedom to choose as crucial to adaptability. She fears that individuals have become so enslaved to tradition that for many, the reality of that freedom to choose is distant.

Freud's (1905) explanation of the sexes was to be understood in their genital differences. Yet in emphasizing the importance of biology in the development of sex differences, he seemed to have struggled with the notion that the differences were not as distinct. Consequently, Freud said that everyone was born with bi-sexual potential, a potential to develop in masculine and feminine psychological directions. Other research supports the cross-sex typing of traits among men and women (Kaplan & Sedney, 1980; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974).

Bakan (1966) proposed that masculinity and femininity are consistent with two fundamental modes of human interaction; femininity with communion and masculinity with agency. The former is manifested in qualities of interrelatedness; the latter is related to the advancement of the self. Bakan observed that viability for both individual and

society means that people try to mitigate interrelatedness with the advancement of the self. Thus, the fully functioning person would incorporate the best of masculinity and femininity.

Kohlberg (1966) suggests that if behavior does follow self-identity, a non-stereotypic self-identity can lead to the development of less stereotypic and perhaps more androgynous behavior. Kaplan and Sedney (1980) concur that the implications for cross-sex behavior are present within Kohlberg's theory. Therefore, while the initial categorization of boy or girl may be fundamental, necessary, or even healthy in establishing what is labeled gender identity, that initial categorization need not interfere with later psychological sex. On the contrary, it should facilitate the process.

Endorsement for Bem's theory comes from Florisha (1978) who further suggests that the androgynous person utilizes a process-oriented approach to life. This approach springs from the interaction of the aware self and the environment. The logic of Bem's theory is that appropriateness comes only as a result of a healthy sense of maleness and femaleness, a possibility only when the artificial constraints of gender are eliminated and individuals are finally free to be their chosen blend of temperament and behavior (Bem, 1976).



But the concept of androgyny is not without its problems. The major problem is that androgyny rests on the very foundation which it seeks to transcend. Bem regards it as ironical that the concept contains this inner contradiction and hence carries with it the seeds of its own destruction:

Thus, as the entymology of the word implies, the concept of androgyny necessarily presupposes that the concepts of masculinity and femininity themselves have distinct and substantive content. But to the extent that the androgynous message is absorbed by the culture, the concepts of masculinity and femininity will cease to have such content; and the distinctions to which they refer will blur into invisibility. Thus when androgyny becomes a reality, the concept of androgyny will have been transcended. (Bem, 1976, pp. 59-60)

### Research on Androgyny

Tentative support for androgyny in terms of adjustment comes from researchers who postulate that androgynous individuals have greater maturity, are adaptive to varied occupations, life styles and expressive roles (Bem, Martyna & Watson, 1976; Block, 1973; Rebecca, Hefner & Oleshansky, 1976). Heilbrun and Pittman (1979) noted that androgyny correlated positively with sex-role flexibility for females. It also correlated with greater behavioral effectiveness and positive self-esteem in both males and females.

A study of Bem and Lenny (1976) found androgynous individuals willing to perform cross-gender activities. On the contrary, when sex-typed subjects engaged in

cross-gender behaviors, they reported psychological discomfort and negative self-image. Spence et al. (1975), studying teenagers and people in their 60's and 70's, concluded that androgynous individuals make the best parents and produced the most well-adjusted children. On the whole these studies, mostly cross-sectional, provide support for Bem's (1975) conclusion that greater adaptability characterizes the androgynous person.

Other observations suggest that greater adaptability and flexibility are associated with androgyny in females but with masculinity in males (Kristbal, Sanders, Spence & Helmreich, 1975; Silvern & Ryan, 1979). A pattern of findings was replicated across measures of attitudes toward women's issues, gender identification, self-esteem, and confidence, utilizing 1,404 subjects. Results showed flexibility and adjustment generally associated with masculinity rather than femininity for both males and females (Jones, Chernovetz & Hanson, 1978). Masculine females in the study failed to reveal any psychological maladjustment but appeared to be happier, more competent and adaptive than the androgynous sex-typed females. Subsequent experiments revealed that feminine subjects, independent of gender, would prefer to become more masculine (Jones, Chernovetz & Hanson, 1978).

Hyde and Phillis (1979) examined the concept of androgyny across the life span using 289 subjects ranging

in ages from 13-85. Results revealed a low percentage of androgynous males in the 13-20, 21-40 age category, but a high percentage in the 41-60 and over age group. Results for females were reversed. Evidence suggests that expectations for sex-role differentiation and actual differentiation may decrease somewhat in old age (Gutmann, 1976; Lowenthal, Thurnher & Chiriboga, 1975). With age women seemed to become more assertive, dominant and aggressive while men seemed to become more passive, dependent, submissive and less competitive (Sinnott, 1977).

Another body of research while not specifically addressing any theories, challenges and refutes the stereotypes (Gilbert, Deutsch & Strahan, 1978; Heilbrun, 1976). In a study of 432 college men and women, a more androgynous ideal of the typical man and woman was endorsed but the traditional views of men and women were alive and well (Gilbert, Deutsch & Strahan, 1978).

Heilbrun (1978) investigated sex-roles in 142 males and 193 females (all white middle-class subjects) based on an adjective check list of self descriptions and parents' descriptions. Findings showed both sexes of androgynous subjects revealing masculine attributes but qualitatively lacking many feminine qualities. The implications from his results were that masculinity and femininity do not simply co-exist in the androgynous person as independent potential, rather they exist as a blending of two sex-role dispositions.

Findings from Le France and Carmen (1980) support this blending of sex-role dispositions in the androgynous person.

### Androgyny and Marital Adjustment

Research on marital adjustment and its relationship to androgyny is embryonic. The point of focus may be poignant for research in search of answers to the failure of traditional roles in maintaining more adjustable marriages. Many of the previously discussed studies have linked stereotyped roles with marital maladjustment, increased divorce, and the failure of marriages to survive. Because androgyny assumes an inherent potential for flexibility, a factor positively related to marital adjustment, it also implies that the partners in a relationship would relate to each other flexibly, based on situations which arise rather than out of a stereotype mold.

In support of the previous assumption are Bailyn's (1970) findings that coordinate marriages involved in the integration of both career and family within the partnership and within each individual and that coordinate marriages were more frequent among partners who were better educated and where wives were more involved as breadwinners outside the home. Supportive research also comes from Kerchvoff's (1972) findings that husbands' greater involvement in household tasks was associated with higher morale among both husbands and wives irrespective of social class.

Keith and Brubaker (1979) also reported that increased androgynous behavior assisted in facilitating adjustment and adaptation to retirement, greater happiness, and higher morale among couples. Welch's (1979) study of three groups of 60 women: 1) wives with no outside employment, 2) wives employed in non-professional occupations and, 3) wives employed in professional occupations, showed the degree of non-traditional involvement in married women positively related to masculinity but coupled with equally high femininity. The three groups showed a positive correlation with androgyny. Whether the androgyny was the determinant or consequence of the non-traditional role is of course open to speculation. Other research does support the viewpoint that traditional couples may experience better adjustment in their marriages (Simms, 1978).

Pederson's (1977) findings gives a new but interesting dimension. He reported that androgynous/sex-typed couples in his study were superior in marital adjustment to all other couple combinations. He theorized that his superiority of adjustment over the androgynous/androgynous couple may well be due to the dual front of the androgynous/sex-typed, having both the flexibility for their private relationship plus the built-in resource for coping with a traditional society. An understanding of Pederson's dual front seems reasonable. Society has traditionally devalued women and the feminine mode and granted

greater power to males. It has treated people differently by sex, class and race. Therefore, the androgynous/sex-typed couple may well be establishing for themselves that solidarity which can only otherwise come through a fundamental change in values and society's willingness to give equal weight to all sexes.

### Self-Complexity

Beyond the concept of sex-roles in this study is that of self-complexity, operationally defined as the degree of differentiation of the self-concept and the number of facets of the self perceived by the individual (Ziller, Martell & Morrison, 1977). The concept builds upon and extends Byrne & Griffit's (1973) theory of social attraction, that individuals are attracted to one another to the extent that relationships offer reward, value, or positive reinforcement. It also builds upon Leonard's (1975) extension of Byrne's theory of similar attraction, that self-esteem is a factor in persons' favorable self-concepts and their attraction to similar others.

Like androgyny, the concept of self-complexity assumes that inherent quality of flexibility. It proposes that individuals with more complex selves are multifaceted, thrive in an expanded social environment, identify more closely with, and relate better to others. Thus the more facets of the self a person perceives, the more flexibility

that person is presumed to have in relating to facets of another person (Ziller, Martell & Morrison, 1977). The assumption of androgyny is that unlike individuals with simple self-concepts, those with complex self-concepts have a high probability of finding a facet of the self that would be similar to another person's and even a greater probability of matching those facets with individuals who are themselves complex. The results would seem to indicate greater chances for social attraction and popularity for the complex self, especially in an expanded social environment.

Ziller et al. (1977) further suggests that the primacy and ubiquity of the self-concept render it a crucial factor in relationships. Its analysis in terms of complexity has implications for personal perception, interpersonal behavior, and social acceptance. Such implications lead to the assumptions that complex individuals will be more inclined toward assimilation, to perceive similarities between self and others, and be more responsive to a variety of others. Thus it is proposed that this potential for expansion and variety suggested by self-complexity give the complex person a very high probability for more meaningful encounters in mate selection and greater chances at levels of adaptability and change demanded in marital adjustment.

Although empirical testings are needed to validate the role of self-complexity in marital adjustment, few supporting

research studies are available. L'Abate (1976) postulated a dialectic continuum of personality differentiation according to degrees of likeness: that 1) marriages between differentiated individuals have the greatest chance of turning out positively, 2) marriages between less differentiated individuals are troublesome and may not last, and 3) marriages between the extremely undifferentiated would probably be stable (misery loves company).

Askham (1976) emphasized that the search for personal identity in coupled intimacy may be a source of conflict, the resolution of which may heavily depend upon the individual's level of differentiation. Hence, if the degree of differentiation allows for the many facets of the self theorized by self-complexity, easier resolutions of conflict may allow for greater chances of adjustment in marriage. Research on self-complexity is minimal, but supportive research on the self-concept from which it is derived shows some relationship with sex-roles and marital adjustment.

#### Self-Concept and Marital Adjustment

Speculation about the degree of differentiation afforded the self-concept in traditional sex-roles may be revealing. Several studies support the crucial nature of the male self-concept as an important variable in marital adjustment. Luckey (1964) found that satisfaction in marriage was related to the congruence of husbands' self-concepts and that held of them by their wives. Others show



self-concepts strongly related to sex-roles (Erdwins, Small & Gross, 1979) and the extent to which culture allows those roles to be internalized (Feather, 1978; Feather & Simon, 1979).

Along with Preston et al. (1962) several other researchers support the shared consensus that the masculine self-concept is important in marriage to both husband and wife (Corsini, 1956; Dean, 1966). These studies along with others reported no significant correlations between the levels of self-esteem reported by women and conformity to the female stereotype. However, the studies reported that both male and female self-esteem were associated with conformity to the male stereotype. Ironically, at the same time women are expressing dissatisfaction with existing role patterns (Elmen, Press & Rosenkrantz, 1970).

Weis (1970) suggested that the degree to which implementation of the self-concept is possible within the social environment is a function of the level of self-esteem associated with role saliency. Ricely (1973) also found similar relationships among sex-role identification, self-esteem, and role saliency. At the same time Hjelle and Butterfield's (1974) study of a group of conservative and liberal females showed that pro-feminist subjects perceive themselves as more confident and rely upon their internal mores rather than constantly seeking external validation. Perhaps this is to be expected. The nature of social and pro-feminist movements like women's liberation which

gives permission to be adventurous and daring seem to inspire a much more healthy self-concept in many females.

Finally, Dymond's (1954) findings of similarity of couples' self-concept on the 15-item MMPI showed that the better partners understood their mates' perception of their world, the more adjustment there was in the relationship. Unfortunately, the distinct lines of demarcation which have separated traditional sex-roles may have helped to account for many partners' myopic vision of their mates' world and the impediments in individuals developing a complex self.

This framework which associates complexity of the self-concept with popularity, social acceptance, attitude similarity and greater attraction between people, gives added explanation to how stereotype traditional sex-roles might have limited individuals in the discovery and development of themselves. It underscores the need for a flexible orientation for those in search of enhancing marital adjustment.

### Social Change

Males, being providers and house-hold heads, and females, being house-wives and mothers, have for years been convincingly documented as the primary occupation of the sexes (Lopata, 1971; Rossi, 1965). The human rights and women's liberation movements led more women and men to the realization that people's roles need not be so limiting.

The change in thought and attitude occasioned by these movements has found increasing numbers, especially women, redefining and reconsidering their traditional roles.

Employed and professional women have been taking primary responsibility for relatively fewer feminine tasks. The picture is not quite the same for non-employed or non-professional women (Beckman & Houser, 1979). Whether such sex-role division of tasks is simply an indication of role specialization that is positively associated with household efficacy or a continued inequality between spouses remains a point of conflict in the adjustment level of many marital dyads.

The American opinion surveys conducted between 1964 - 1974 showed signs of ferment in family division of labor. Over that decade, in every major segment of the population, the proportion of women supporting the traditional pattern of the division of labor between husband and wife declined (Giele, 1979; Mason, Czajka & Arber, 1974). This increasing number of women in the work force, the rising divorce rate and the growing insistence by women on revising the roles within marriages signal the need for greater equalitarianism within marriage (Fogarty, Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971; Silver, 1977).

Since World War II the number of mothers working in the labor force has doubled (Moore & Sawhill, 1976). Between 1940 and 1974 the proportion rose from 14 to 43 percent

(kreps & Clark, 1975). During the same years the median age of women marrying for the first time rose to 21.1 (Marecek, 1979) and there was a marked increase in women postponing marriage until the mid-twenties, and completing college prior to marrying. Labor economists project that there will be over 43.7 million women in the labor force by 1990.

The trends imply that adjustment in marriages in terms of housework, child-care and money may even mean a minimizing of polarities on which traditional sex-roles are built. Would the paid employment have a liberalizing effect on the sex-role orientation of husband and wife? How might the liberalizing effect affect the marital adjustment?

Marecek (1979) examined such recent changes on the timing of life stages, length of life span, labor force participation, marriage, and fertility as factors affected by social change and mental health. Factors explored showed the average age of female life expectancy is now 75.3 compared to that of males, now 67.6. This represents an improvement of 13 years for women and 9 years for men since 1935 (Bureau of Census, 1976). Increase of and difference in longevity for males and females have obvious repercussions on marriage. It means that parents are left alone for many more decades. If nothing but traditional role orientation is developed, wherein lie the skills for adaptation?

The male-female discrepancy in longevity plus the cultural norm of older-male/younger-female pairings, implies that widowhood is almost an expectancy. How must traditional women cope with the new demands to adapt to self-support and an independent life? Moreover, the increase in longevity also indicates many more years in retirement. Are the aged equipped for such psychological adaptability and adjustment, especially when financial and health problems are more likely to impede adjustment? If androgynous and complex identities allow individuals to assume combined male-female roles, with a comfortable range of adaptability, then such an identity may be consistent with social realities.

#### Summary

The literature reviewed has focused on marital adjustment. It has examined the effect that sex-roles, androgyny, self-complexity and social change may be having upon such adjustment. It has shown the problems of defining and measuring marital adjustment, some factors influencing mate selection, and the unique differences which history, sociology, and demography may account for in the mate selection and marital adjustment of blacks.

Various theories on the development of sex-roles have shown that these stereotypes are universal, steeped in history, and especially denigrating to women and blacks. An examination of androgyny, cross-sex behavior and gender

identity indicate that androgyny has the potential for a much more equalitarian and satisfactory life between the sexes. Similarly, self-complexity, with its implications for greater social acceptance, attraction and flexibility, may have possibilities for better mate selection and greater marital adjustment. The review finally examined some social changes and the liberalizing effect such changes may be having upon marital adjustment.

The research has probably raised more questions than it may be able to answer. Nevertheless, the researcher believes that it will serve to identify and help verify the extent to which sex-roles and self-complexity are affecting males and females in the quest for better marital adjustment.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to determine a) whether marital partners' sex-role types and self-complexities were related to their marital adjustments, and b) whether the differences accounted for by these two variables existed in the marital adjustment of blacks and whites. Marital adjustment was investigated by the use of the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Inventory (Appendix A). Sex-role types were measured by the Bem's Sex-Role Inventory (Appendix B). Self-complexities were measured by the Ziller Self-Complexity Scale (Appendix C).

#### Hypotheses

Hypothesis One. There is no significant linear relationship among person's perceived marital adjustment, self-complexity and selected demographic variables.

Hypothesis Two. There are no significant associations between sex-role types and selected demographic variables.

Hypothesis Three. There are no significant differences in marital adjustment between different sexes.

Hypothesis Four. There are no significant differences in marital adjustment between different sex-role types.

Hypothesis Five. There are no significant differences in marital adjustment between different races.

Hypothesis Six. There are no significant differences in marital adjustment among different "typols" (couples combined sex-role type).

### Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of married couples from the cities of Gainesville and Jacksonville in the State of Florida. Gainesville is a corporate city, a youth-oriented community and university town with a population of 81,370. Jacksonville, also a corporate city, is a metropolitan, industrialized seaport town with a population of 540,890. The sample included 207 married couples, 94 black couples and 113 white couples. The 207 couples were selected through various church groups, the Volunteer Action Center, Community Education classes, and "word of mouth."

The process of sample selection was as follows: 20 ministers of churches (10 black and 10 white) were selected from the telephone directory. The researcher then contacted these ministers by phone, explained the purpose of and gave a description of the study (Appendix F). Ministers who expressed willingness to participate in the study were asked to 1) read the description and purpose of the study to their audience, 2) invite couples wishing to participate to call the researcher at the number specified, and 3) give the



researcher permission to use the church directory from which couples could be randomly selected. A follow-up "thank you" letter with a brief explanation of the study (Appendix G), and a stamped, addressed envelope for returning the church directory was mailed or hand-delivered to ministers who agreed to participate.

Couples from the Volunteer Action Center volunteered to be research subjects after they were informed by the Director that there was a need for subjects in a research study on marital adjustment. Couples from the Community Education classes volunteered following a presentation which the researcher made to their classes as a means of soliciting participants for the study. Finally, other couples who had heard from participants of the need for subjects telephoned the researcher and expressed their willingness to participate.

Three hundred couples were given the questionnaire battery. The total return sample was 219 couples or a 73 percent return rate. Four percent of these could not be used because one spouse failed to complete the battery, the couple was interracial, or too many questions were left unanswered. Sixty-nine percent of the questionnaire batteries, or 207 were therefore usable.

### Instrumentation

#### Bem's Sex-Role Inventory

Bem's Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) is a measure of psychological androgyny. The instrument is a composite of three

scales: 1) a scale of masculinity, 2) a scale of femininity, and 3) a neutral or social desirability scale. Each scale consists of 20 personality characteristics and treats masculinity and femininity as two orthonogonal dimensions rather than two ends of a single dimension (Bem, 1974; Constantinople, 1973).

Bem's instrument is built on the theory that a person's level of social desirability whether masculine or feminine is indicated by his or her score which is the self-described difference between the total points assigned to the masculine and feminine attributes. Thus an androgynous sex-role is represented by a score with an equally high endorsement of masculine and feminine personality characteristics. As the differences between the M-F lessen, the degree of androgyny increases. Responses range from 1 (never or almost never true) to 7 (always or almost always), with score ranging from 60 to 720.

Several investigators (Spence & Helmreich, 1979) including Bem (1977) reanalyzed the three levels of the androgyny concept. While individuals scoring high on both masculine and feminine items fitted the definition of androgynous, those scoring low on both sets of items were then placed in a fourth category and labeled undifferentiated.

In normative data derived from two college student samples of 2,000 undergraduates, Bem reports  $r = .11$ ,  $r = .14$  to  $r = -.07$ . Internal consistency of the BSRI based on

coefficient alpha for masculinity, femininity and social desirability was  $r = .86$  reliable at .93 over a four-week interval. The breakdown was Masculinity .86 and .86; Femininity .80 and .82; Social Desirability .75 and .70; and Androgyny .35 and .86.

To ensure that the Androgyny score was not simply a measure of responding in a socially desirable direction, and hence tapping a social set, Bem secured Product Moment correlations between the Social Desirability, the Masculinity, Femininity and Androgyny scores for both samples. Both Masculinity and Femininity correlated with Social Desirability. Correlation between Social Desirability and Androgyny was zero.

#### Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale

The Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (L-W) is a measure of marital adjustment, by now the most frequently used and validated of marital adjustment tests (L'Abate & Goodrich, 1980). The 15-item inventory is normed on a sample of 48 happily and 48 unhappily married couples. Attempts were made to assess perceived degree of agreement on areas such as finances, sex, friends, equality in decision-making, satisfaction with marriage, and the tendency to stay at home.

A comparison of both groups on the basis of age and sex yielded a mean score of 100 or higher for 17 percent of the unhappily married couples compared to a mean score of 135 or higher for the happily married group, with 95 percent having scores over 100. The reliability coefficient of the

adjustment test completed by split-half technique and corrected by Spearman Brown formula is .90. Correlations with Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) which attempts to assess the quality of marriage and other similar dyads are .86 for married samples and .88 for divorced groups.

### Ziller's Self-Complexity Scale

Ziller's Self-Complexity Scale (SC) measures the complexity of the self-concept by a number of adjectives checked as descriptive of the self (Ziller, Martell & Morrison, 1977). The measure uses 109 high-frequency adjectives from the Lorge-Thorndike Book (Thorndike & Lorge, 1944). Subjects simply check adjectives which they think describe them. The theory is built on and extends Byrne's theory of social attraction which describes links between breadth of social interaction, complexity of the self-concept and social attraction.

Split-half reliability on a sample of 100 7th - 12th graders was .92. Test-retest reliability after one month for college sophomores was .72. Validity on the instrument yielded correlations of  $-.28$  ( $p < .01$ ) between the self-esteem and self-complexity measure for professionals; it was .07 for a group of 40 college students and .08 for junior and high school students. Ziller's correlations between communication of handicaps and complexity of the self-concept were  $r = 1.93$  with a  $p < .10$ , and  $2.19$  with a  $p < .05$ ; between terminal

illness and complexity  $F = 3.38$  with  $p .0005$ ; for complexity and social identification  $.31$ ,  $p < .05$ ; for complexity and perceived similarity,  $F = 7.97$ ,  $p < .01$ ; correlation between complexity of the self-concept and social interest =  $.11$ ; for complexity and sociometric status, the median for unchosen children was 24 compared to 41 for popular children.

### Procedures

The materials given to couples included two separately stapled sets of Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Inventory, Bem's Sex-Role Inventory, Ziller's Self-Complexity Scale, a demographic data sheet (Appendix D), and a cover letter giving directions to participants (Appendix E). The instruments took approximately 30 minutes to be completed.

Initial contact with potential church couples was made by phone when the church directory was received or the couples called. A description of the research was again given and tasks expected of each couple were outlined (Appendix H). If the couple committed themselves to participate in the study, the investigator arranged for the delivery and collection of materials. Ninety-seven church couples were given the questionnaire battery.

When couples volunteered from the Volunteer Action Center the director submitted their names and telephone numbers to the researcher who in turn contacted each couple by telephone and gave an explanation of the study (Appendix H). The

researcher then arranged to deliver or mail the packets to participants' homes. Arrangements were also made for collecting packets from participants, or having packets mailed back within one or no later than two weeks of delivery. Twenty-one couples from the Volunteer Action Center received the questionnaire battery.

The researcher made arrangements with instructors to visit their Community Education classes. The purpose of the study was explained and packets were given to persons who expressed their willingness to participate. One hundred and sixty-three couples from the Community Education classes received the questionnaire battery. The researcher returned according to arrangements to collect completed packets two consecutive weeks following delivery of packets in those classes. Finally, when other couples who had heard about the study telephoned the researcher inquiring about the possibility of participating, arrangements were made for materials to be sent and collected to 19 such couples.

Except for couples who expressed a preference to have the materials mailed, packets of materials were delivered to couples' homes by the researcher who arranged to collect the packets within one to three weeks. A follow-up telephone call was made to couples two days prior to the end of the one-week period in order to collect the questionnaires or to ensure that they were completed and/or mailed. If respondents forgot or lost the packets, an additional week was given for

delivery, completion, and collection of questionnaires. In some cases, a second reminder was given before the final contact.

About 80 percent of the packets were hand-delivered and collected. Couples were called and reminded about two days prior to "pick-up" date. Initial "pick-up" resulted in a 25 percent return rate. Those who did not return the packet on the first arranged date were given one or two more reminder phone calls. The procedures resulted in a 73 percent return.

#### Analysis of Data

Data were computed by the computer facilities of the Northeast Regional Data Center (NERDC), Gainesville, Florida. Analysis was conducted by use of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS). Hypothesis One was tested by a step-wise linear regression using SAS Maximum  $R^2$  improvement technique to see if there were significant linear relationships between marital adjustment scores and any of the continuous variables (self-complexity, children, children at home, years married, age, and number of marriages). Based on the results of the regression analysis, self-complexity and sometimes children were chosen as co-variables to be used with class variables in finding the best fitting models for future analyses. Pearson Product Moment correlations in Tables 14-17 (Appendix I) were also used to test for significant correlations among variables.

Hypothesis two was tested by chi-square analysis in order to determine if there were significant associations between sex-role types and the class variables. The variables categorized into classes were race, education, years of marriage, age, and occupation. These were the variables defined as "selected demographic variables." It was necessary that examination of associations preclude any other analyses because of the unbalanced weighting of the sample and the need to be aware of interpretation of one-way analyses which might be reflecting the influence of associated variables in their significant results.

Hypothesis three was tested by two-way analysis of variance, with a co-variate to determine if significant differences existed in marital adjustment between the sexes. Hypotheses four and five were analyzed by a two-way analysis of variance with a co-variate to look for significant differences in marital adjustment explained by the effects of sex-role types and race.

The variable sex-role type and race in hypotheses four and five were considered together because of possible interactions not evident in one-way analyses. Non-significant interactions involving self-complexity led to a two-way analysis without the co-variate and a one-way analysis by race. Hypothesis six was analyzed by a two-way analysis of variance and a one-way analysis at each level of race because of a race/typol interaction found in the two-way analysis.



### Limitations of the Study

The following were limitations of the study:

1. The term "marital adjustment" is not uniformly defined in the literature, hence the variations in definitions may restrict generalizations of findings.
2. There is still debate underlying the theoretical construct of the BSRI.
3. The variability of responses may be affected by a socially desirable response set (a problem of self-report questionnaires).
4. All studies of this type have problems with unavoidable sampling bias (e.g., volunteer bias, motivational bias). Such bias need not invalidate the results but reinforce the need for replication.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Results

Two hundred and seven married couples (94 black and 113 white couples) participated in the study. A description of the sample according to demographic variables is presented in Tables 11-13 (Appendix I). Data analyses were conducted as outlined in Chapter Three. The findings and meaning of each hypothesis will first be presented, followed by a discussion of what these findings and the themes suggested by them may indicate.

#### Hypothesis One

There is no significant linear relationship among persons' perceived marital adjustment, self-complexity, and selected demographic variables. Step-wise linear regression analysis was used to determine which of the continuous variables (i.e., self-complexity, children, children at home, age, years of marriage and number of marriages) had a significant linear regression on marital adjustment. The results in Table 1 show that self-complexity and children are the two best fitting variables in the marital adjustment model. These two variables have a significant linear regression (Table 2) and

Table 1  
Best Six-Variable Model Explaining Marital Adjustment

| Variables        | Regression Coefficient | R <sup>2</sup> at Each Step | Sums of Squares | F-Value |
|------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Children         | -1.69                  | .018                        | 1172.21         | 6.87*   |
| Self-Complexity  | 0.11                   | .028                        | 1083.91         | 4.20**  |
| Children at home | 0.45                   | .029                        | 203.66          | 0.79    |
| Times married    | 1.23                   | .031                        | 83.38           | 0.32    |
| Age              | 0.04                   | .032                        | 26.27           | 0.10    |
| Years married    | 0.01                   | .032                        | 0.79            | 0.00    |

\*p < .01

\*\*p < .05

Table 2  
Analysis of Regression for the Best  
Six-Variable Marital Adjustment Model

| Source of Variation | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Value |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Regression          | 6                  | 3379.84         | 2.18*   |
| Residual            | 399                | 102894.93       |         |
| TOTAL               | 405                | 106274.77       |         |

\*p < .05

they explain 28 percent of the total 31 percent variance contributed by all variables.

These results mean that self-complexity and the demographic variable children were the only two variables accounting for differences in the marital adjustment of persons. The regression coefficient in Table 1 shows an inverse relationship between marital adjustment and children. This means that as the number of children increases, marital adjustment decreases. However, the regression does show a tendency for marital adjustment to increase as self-complexity increases. These results led to the rejection of Hypothesis One.

Hypothesis Two

There are no significant associations between sex-role types and selected demographic variables. Chi-square analysis was used to examine which of the selected demographic variables (race, education, years of marriage, age, occupation) were significantly associated with sex-role types. The results in Table 3 show a significant association between race

Table 3  
Chi-Square Analysis of Sex-Role Type by Race  
Association (Showing Frequency, Frequency  
Percent, and Column Percent)

| Sex-Role Type      | Race                     |                          | Total          |
|--------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------|
|                    | <u>Black</u>             | <u>White</u>             |                |
| Masculine          | 57<br>13.77%<br>30.32%   | 79<br>19.09%<br>34.96%   | 136<br>32.86%  |
| Feminine           | 44<br>10.63%<br>23.40%   | 72<br>17.39%<br>31.86%   | 116<br>28.02%  |
| Undifferentiated   | 9<br>2.17%<br>4.79%      | 7<br>1.69%<br>3.10%      | 16<br>3.86%    |
| Androgynous        | 78<br>18.84%<br>41.49%   | 68<br>16.43%<br>30.09%   | 146<br>35.27%  |
| TOTAL              | 188<br>45.41%<br>100.00% | 226<br>54.59%<br>100.00% | 414<br>100.00% |
| Chi-Square = 7.83* |                          |                          | DF = 3         |

p < .05

and sex-role type ( $p < .05$ ). This association is explained by the differing proportions of sex-role type in both races; the largest proportion of blacks was 41.49 percent androgynous compared to 30.09 percent androgynous whites. The highest proportion of whites was 31.68 percent feminine sex-role type compared to 23.46 percent blacks in the same category. These results mean that there is a relationship between sex-role type and race since a similar proportionality does not exist in the four categories of sex-role type for both races. Therefore there are sufficient grounds for rejecting Hypothesis Two between sex-role type and race.

The results in Table 4 show a significant association between sex-role type and age-category for black males ( $p < .01$ ). As black males became older the proportion in the masculine sex-role type increased. The second largest increase among blacks was within the androgynous sex-role type. Results indicated that there were no significant age/sex-role type associations for females and white males.

These results mean that sex-role types differ among black males of different ages. Therefore there are grounds for rejecting Hypothesis Two relative to age and sex-role type for black males. However, there is apparently no relationship between age and sex-role type for females and white males since a similar proportionality in sex-role types does exist for these groups. Therefore there are no grounds for rejecting Hypothesis Two between these variables relative to these groups.

These analyses showed no other associations between sex-role type and the other selected demographic variables (education, years of marriage, age, occupation). These results therefore failed to support rejection of Hypothesis Two between sex-role type and these other demographic variables.

Table 4  
Chi-Square Statistics for Age-Category  
by Sex-Role Type for Black Males

| Sex-Role Type       | Age Category |           | Total   |        |
|---------------------|--------------|-----------|---------|--------|
|                     | 20 - 29      | 30 & Over |         |        |
| Masculine           | 9            | 38        | 47      | 50.54% |
| Feminine            | 2            | 2         | 4       | 4.30%  |
| Undifferentiated    | 2            | 3         | 5       | 5.38%  |
| Androgynous         | 10           | 27        | 37      | 39.78% |
| Chi-square = 35.89* |              |           | DF = 18 |        |

\*p<.01

### Hypothesis Three

There are no significant differences in marital adjustment between different sexes. A two-way analysis of variance with race and sex using self-complexity as a co-variate was used to examine the differences in marital adjustment between males and females. Results in Table 5 show no significant

differences in marital adjustment between both sexes ( $p > .05$ ). Adjusted means in Table 20 (Appendix I) show males and females having almost identical marital adjustment means. These results mean that males and females were experiencing an almost identical level of adjustment within marriages. Neither sex was more adjusted than the other. These results failed to support rejection of Hypothesis Three.

Table 5  
Two-Way Analysis of Locke-Wallace Marital  
Adjustment Scores (N = 414)

| Source of Variation | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Value |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Race                | 1                  | 1947.96         | 8.20*   |
| Sex                 | 1                  | 6.49            | 0.03**  |
| Race x Sex          | 1                  | 641.51          | 2.70    |
| SC (Race x Sex)     | 4                  | 2541.64         | 2.68*** |
| Model               | 7                  | 11382.62        | 6.85    |
| Residual            | 403                | 95677.20        |         |
| TOTAL               | 410                | 107059.82       |         |

Note. SC is the abbreviation used for Self-Complexity

\* $p < .005$

\*\* $p > .05$

\*\*\* $p < .05$



### Hypothesis Four

There are no significant differences in marital adjustment between different sex-role types. A two-way analysis of variance with race and sex-role type using self-complexity as a co-variate was used to determine significant differences in marital adjustment explained by the effects of sex-role type. The results in Table 6 indicate that there were significant sex-role type differences ( $p < .01$ ) and self-complexity was significantly related to marital adjustment ( $p < .005$ ). Together these variables accounted for 15 percent of the differences in marital adjustment.

Table 6  
Analysis of Variance of Black and White Mean  
Locke-Wallace Scores on Sex-Role Type  
(with Self-Complexity as Co-Variate)

| Source of Variation       | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Value |
|---------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Race                      | 1                  | 420.07          | 1.83    |
| Sex-Role Type             | 3                  | 2716.27         | 3.95*   |
| Self-Complexity           | 1                  | 1964.27         | 8.56**  |
| Race x Sex-Role Type      | 3                  | 170.41          | 0.25    |
| SC x Race                 | 1                  | 108.74          | 0.47    |
| SC x Sex-Role Type        | 3                  | 1709.44         | 2.48    |
| SC x Race x Sex-Role Type | 3                  | 208.80          | 0.30    |
| Explained                 | 15                 | 16423.47        | 4.77*** |
| Residual                  | 395                | 90636.35        |         |
| TOTAL                     | 410                | 107059.82       |         |

\* $p < .01$

\*\* $p < .005$

\*\*\* $p < .0001$

Non-significant interactions involving self-complexity were then removed from the model and a two-way analysis of variance assuming equal slopes for the complexity co-variate is shown in Table 7. A clear race/sex-role type interaction is now seen. This led to one-way analysis by race given in Table 21 (Appendix I). The results show sex-role type differences in marital adjustment for blacks ( $p < .01$ ) but not for whites ( $p > .01$ ). Marital adjustment for undifferentiated blacks were significantly lower than means for black masculine, feminine, or androgynous sex-role types in Table 22 (Appendix I).

Table 7  
Two-Way Analysis of Variance on Mean Locke-Wallace  
Scores (Race by Sex-Role Type)

| Source of Variation  | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Ratio |
|----------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Self-Complexity      | 1                  | 1275.34         | 5.55*   |
| Race                 | 1                  | 8467.26         | 36.84*  |
| Sex-Role Type        | 3                  | 1611.97         | 2.34    |
| Race x Sex-Role Type | 3                  | 2087.01         | 3.03*   |
| Explained            | 8                  | 14670.09        | 7.98**  |
| Residual             | 402                | 92389.73        |         |
| TOTAL                | 410                | 107059.82       |         |

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .0001$

The results from these analyses mean that among blacks, the different sex-role types experienced differences in marital adjustment even after removing the differences in adjustment explained by the co-variate self-complexity. Blacks with an undifferentiated sex-role type were not as adjusted in their marriages as those having a masculine, feminine or androgynous sex-role type. Whites had no marital adjustment differences accounted for by the influence of sex-role type differences. The results led to the rejection of Hypothesis Four for blacks but not for whites.

#### Hypothesis Five

There are no significant differences in marital adjustment between different races. Previously examined two-way analysis of variance in Table 7 shows a clear race difference in marital adjustment ( $p < .0001$ ). Results in Table 8 give the adjusted means on marital adjustment scores for the races. The results show that whites have adjusted means almost 14 points higher than blacks ( $p < .0001$ ).

Table 8

Adjusted Means on Locke-Wallace for Blacks and Whites

| Race   | Adjusted Means | Standard Error of<br>Adjusted Means |
|--------|----------------|-------------------------------------|
| Blacks | 98.51*         | 1.54                                |
| Whites | 112.13*        | 1.64                                |

\* $p < .0001$  using conservative Bonferroni procedures

The race differences are also confirmed in one-way analysis of co-variance in Table 9 ( $p < .005$ ). But one-way analysis should be viewed in the light of the associations between race and sex-role type and the already established sex-role type differences. However, the results mean that blacks and whites are experiencing significantly different adjustment in their marriages. Whites are having considerably more well-adjusted marriages than blacks. These results led to the rejection of Hypothesis Five.

Table 9  
One-Way Analysis of Co-Variance on Mean  
Locke Wallace Scores (N = 414)

| Source of Variation | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Ratio |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Race                | 1                  | 2392.67         | 10.20*  |
| SC (Race)           | 2                  | 1414.55         | 3.20**  |
| Explained           | 3                  | 6254.06         | 8.89*** |
| Residual            | 202                | 47379.30        |         |
| TOTAL               | 205                | 53633.36        |         |

Note. SC is the abbreviation used for Self-Complexity

\* $p < .005$

\*\* $p < .05$

\*\*\* $p < .0001$

### Hypothesis Six

There are no significant differences in marital adjustment among different "typols." Results from a two-way analysis of variance with race and typol (Table 10) showed significant typol differences in marital adjustment ( $p < .05$ ). Race/typol interactions led to the one-way analysis at each level of race in Table 23 (Appendix I) which showed that there were significant typol differences for blacks and whites ( $p < .05$ ). A difference in the ordering of the adjusted means in Table 24 (Appendix I) explains the race/typol interaction.

Table 10  
Two-Way Analysis of Variance on Mean Locke-Wallace  
Scores for Different "Typols" (Couples Combined  
Sex-Role Types)

| Source of Variation | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Ratio  |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|----------|
| Race                | 1                  | 6467.54         | 28.43*** |
| Typol               | 9                  | 4222.50         | 2.06**   |
| Race x Typol        | 7                  | 3638.80         | 2.29**   |
| Self-Complexity     | 1                  | 1435.88         | 6.31*    |
| Explained           | 18                 | 17890.17        |          |
| Residual            | 392                | 89169.65        |          |
| TOTAL               | 410                | 107059.82       |          |

\* $p < .01$

\*\* $p < .05$

\*\*\* $p < .0001$

The adjusted means for the black undifferentiated/androgynous couples were significantly lower than that of the feminine/feminine and masculine/feminine combinations. White androgynous feminine combinations had significantly higher means than masculine/feminine or masculine/masculine "typol" combinations. The results mean that marital adjustment is different for the varying sex-role type combinations in the couples' relationships. The results led to the rejection of Hypothesis Six.

### Discussion

The significant findings from this study revealed a positive relationship between self-complexity and marital adjustment. Self-complexity was shown to have a significantly positive relationship with the marital adjustment of white males, white females, black males, and persons having higher levels of education. Moreover, the findings showed a tendency for an increase in self-complexity to correspondingly accompany an increase in marital adjustment. These results may indicate a new and emerging context from which information on marital adjustment should be gleaned.

Ziller et al. (1977) implied that the more complex persons should experience greater adaptability and flexibility, qualities Bem noted are compatible with the androgynous sex-role type. If the positive relationship between androgyny and marital adjustment in this sample gives credibility

to Bem's theory, then certainly that same credibility seems applicable to Ziller's theory of the more complex persons having more flexibility for greater social interaction. For even as Bem's androgynous had among the highest marital adjustment means, they also had the highest complexity means (Table 25).

Even in instances where the undifferentiated did not have the lowest marital adjustment means, they still had the lowest complexity means. Noticeably within the educational categories in Table 25 (Appendix I), the least educated had the lowest self-complexity and marital adjustment means. For white females and black males, highest marital adjustment means were associated with highest complexity means. As blacks' marital adjustment means were highest among the feminine and the androgynous, and lowest among the undifferentiated, so were their complexity means.

While one cannot use the previous evidence alone to establish a theory that the more complex persons are the more adjusted, the consistency in the patterns of comparisons between self-complexity and sex-role type scores is a substantial base for pursuing research on the theory that the more complex persons may indeed be better adjusted. The results of the data may indicate that those who share in marriage relationships enrich their lives as they develop so many facets of themselves. Perhaps the versatility experienced by these complex persons does enable them to explore and

experience their full potential in sharing with others and lending variability to their relationships.

An interesting but critical feature of this research is the presence of children found to be significantly and negatively related to the probability of marital disruption. This is illustrated by its prominence as one of the two best fitting variables in the marital adjustment model and its negative correlation with all except white males. Moreover, despite the fact that the presence of children did not account for significant differences in marital adjustment, adjustment means increased for whites as children increased but decreased for blacks under similar conditions.

These findings support Hicks and Platt's (1970) earlier findings that children tend to detract from the marital quality. They also support other research studies which maintain that blacks and females are more negatively affected by the presence of children in a marriage (Feldman, 1971; Hobbs & Cole, 1976). One is left to wonder whether children are a source of frustration because they are unwanted, or because they impede the self-actualization of men and women within marriages.

The history of women's role in the family has been one which has catered to meeting the needs and expectations of children. Black parents have been joint-economic burden bearers, and black women have been home-makers as well as economic providers. Such a history may begin to explain how



the balance of work and leisure is being upset by the presence of children. Rising participation of women in the labor force to help families over lean times may often be impeded by the presence of children whose needs and expectations must be met. This paradox may help explain the significant cost the presence of children represent to marriages in general and black marriages in particular.

A grouping of occupational categories within the sample showed black females involved with the more manual and domestic occupations as the only group whose marital adjustment means were significantly lower ( $\alpha.05$ ) than all occupational groups. If the attending pressures of children and occupation bear any relationship to socio-economics, then the pattern in this study may be illustrative of Jamrozy's (1975) findings of low adjustment in low socio-economic groups. Perhaps too, the pattern may be reflecting the conclusions of Udry's (1974) 18 year longitudinal study that marital adjustment is related to wives, not husbands, abilities to adapt to change in the marriage relationship. Adjustment within these circumstances may be difficult if not impossible for black females.

It was interesting but surprising to find that initial analyses revealed no significant differences in marital adjustment among the different educational categories. Based on results of previous research findings one would have expected to find the more educated being much more

well-adjusted than the less educated. However, subsequent examination of an interaction between sex-role type and educational category in Tables 27-30 (Appendix I) revealed that marital adjustment differences were only among white females with a feminine sex-role type. Those with a BA were having significantly higher marital adjustment than those with a high school education ( $p < .0005$ ). Again one is left to wonder whether the effects of limited education minimizes for less educated women the sense of fulfillment which the more educated are able to experience in their marriages.

The race-sex-role type association in this study evidences a sex-role type imbalance between the races. The largest number of blacks (41 percent) were in the androgynous category while in the same category there were 27 percent whites. Whites had their largest amount (36 percent) in the feminine sex-role type compared to 16 percent blacks in the same category (Table 3). Thus while the issue of sex-roles may still be very alive, and while whites and blacks are still sharing the traditional as well as the current trends in marriage, the results show that blacks are the only ones whose marriage relationships show evidence of being significantly affected by the imposing constraints of sex-role types.

What Le France and Carmen (1980) observed may well be true, that the formulation of traditional role patterns may be deeper and longer lasting in some instances than in others.

This may also be related to the possibility that changing sex-role will or will not impact on a particular group depending on the solidarity the group experienced in previously established roles. Hence blacks may be experimenting and finding greater adjustment in being androgynous since traditional roles have not held relevance to the lifestyle which they have been forced to live and therefore have not helped them to realize more adjusted marriages. It is also highly probable that influenced by the practicalities of their own situation, blacks and whites may be differing in their perception of sex-role.

The ordering of marital adjustment means within the sample tends to support as well as raise questions on Bem and Lenny's (1976) speculation that undifferentiated individuals may actually be suffering from lack of self-esteem while the androgynous should be the most adjusted. Undifferentiated blacks did have significantly lower marital adjustment means; but among the white males, it was the masculine sex-role type who had the lowest marital adjustment means. The undifferentiated was almost equal with the androgynous in sharing the highest marital adjustment means (Table 22). Though not significantly different, the androgynous and feminine sex-role type shared highest marital adjustment means for both races and sexes.

One departure from most of the research on Bem's theory was that next to androgyny, femininity appeared as

relationship-enhancing. Previous literature showed masculinity other than androgyny implying positive relations (Jones, Chernovetz & Hanson, 1978; Silvern & Ryan, 1979). The positive relationship between femininity and marital adjustment, in particular the superiority of the femininity combinations (F-F) for both races (Appendix I, Table 24), may hold favorable implications of femininity as having problem-solving capacity for couples. It may be indicative of changes in society and the impact such changes may be having on marital adjustment.

The failure of the androgynous/androgynous combination to yield the highest marital adjustment means and the concomitant higher adjustment means shown by the androgynous/sex-type combinations in both races tend to support Pederson's (1977) theory that the androgynous/sex-type combination may have superior adjustment over the androgynous/androgynous couple due to the dual front for flexibility in their private relationship plus the built-in resource for dealing with a traditional society. These findings along with the narrow margin between the mean scores of the androgynous maritally adjusted and those of other sex-role types, plus the 16 percent androgynous blacks who emerged as maladjusted may weaken confidence in Bem's androgyny role model.

This study, however, does not imply a rejection of Bem's theory. Earlier discussion has shown support for both the androgyny and the undifferentiated theories. However,

with femininity emerging as such a positive force in the study, the results may simply be pointing to the need for an elaboration of the theory on fundamentally different types of groups whose evidence of flexibility may be uniquely different. Thorough analysis of fairly crude data may indicate weakness in existing theories and demonstrate that they are in need of refinement before more elegant tests are designed and conducted. Meanwhile it may even be that marriage relationships continue to be subject to structural constraints. That is, man and woman will always share tasks as family structure dictates. The extent to which these roles will be shared will also be shaped by forces outside the confines of the marriage. Hence sex-role type divergence in partners need not be symptomatic of maladjustment.

The results of these data analyses indicate that at all age levels, whites consistently reflect higher marital adjustment than blacks. The very distinct adjustment difference between the races is tempting ground for accepting Spanier and Glick's (1980) recent theorizing that, based on evidence from age, education and divorce demographics, blacks may already be entering marriage with a deficit. But the demographics for blacks in this sample do not support the theory.

I-test results in Table 31 (Appendix I) revealed no significant age differences between the spouses of either

racess, no significant differences in number of times married, and though black women were significantly more educated than black men ( $p .05$ ), the disparity in education between the spouses (range of 2.38 of points) was 73 percent smaller than the educational difference between white spouses. Moreover marital adjustment differences related to education as shown in Tables 27-30 (Appendix I) were only observed for white females with a feminine sex-role type.

These results suggest that there is need for more accurate theorizing and unbiased data collection relative to research which claims that black males are so poorly educated and adjusted compared to black females (Jackson, 1971; Staples, 1970). The truth as shown in Table 32 (Appendix I) is that both black males and females are at the lower end of the marital adjustment continuum reflecting a mere 38 percent well-adjusted compared to 63 percent well-adjusted whites in a sample where 70 percent are well-adjusted.

But marriage is complex and so are the black/white differences. For race as a variable accounting for significant differences in marital adjustment is modified by its interaction with sex-role type and the imbalance in the race/sex-type associations. What is proposed here is that though race is a consequential factor in the marital adjustment differences, the presence of self-complexity and sex-role type within these races may be accounting for much of that which is credited to race. Hence the awareness of

these modifications imposed by sex-role type and self-complexity must govern race difference interpretations.

Finally, the absence of significant age differences in marital adjustment in this sample points to a very unique premise, that the last decade of highly documented rising divorce rates is a function of all age groups, and not as is widely believed, an epidemic among the youth. This along with the 70 percent well-adjusted found in this study is hope for the survival of the marriage institution.

CHAPTER FIVE  
CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, SUMMARY  
AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

The findings from the data analyses demonstrated that

1. Self-complexity and children accounted for more of the differences in marital adjustment than all other variables combined. There is a tendency for persons' marital adjustment to increase as their self-complexity increases. However, individual's marital adjustment tends to decrease as the number of children in the marriage increases.
2. The number of years married, the number of times married, the occupation, the age of spouse, or attendance at church bore no relationship to the adjustment in marriages. Only self-complexity, children and education were related to marital adjustment.
3. Differences in marital adjustment explained by education were present only among white females with a feminine sex-role type.
4. The larger proportion of black individuals were of the androgynous sex-role type, while the larger proportion of white individuals were of the feminine sex-role type.



As age increased for blacks, the number of masculine sex-role type persons increased.

5. Whites were experiencing more well-adjusted marriages than blacks.
6. Within black and white races, males and females were experiencing comparable marital adjustment.

### Implications

The results from the data imply that marriage counselors and other clinicians need to be aware of the impact societal issues and trends have on marriages. This seems particularly true of sex-role changes in black marriages and changes in marital adjustment related to education among white females. Clinicians also need to be aware of how couples are responding to sex-role and educational changes so that they can assist many confused partners through the experience of understanding attitudes and behavior changes in their mates.

Marriage and family counselors would do well to help couples make decisions about sharing the roles and responsibilities of children. The data from this study imply that there is a need for counselors to assist couples in devising strategies for ensuring that children are a more positive part of marriages. Beyond this, counselors may need to make family planning a very definite aspect of marriage counseling. Educators, youth directors in churches, and those who take

responsibility for sex education can use the data from this study to encourage more responsible attitudes and behaviors in the whole area of human sexuality. To this end, the frustrations resulting from the presence of unwanted or too many children could be minimized.

The credibility of researchers and clinicians can be enhanced if they look beyond situation-specifics into other knotty interpersonal issues which upset the adjustment mode of many marriages. Some of these issues stemming from children or any other demographics can constitute intolerable burdens to any marriage relationship. The results of the study imply that clinicians need to approach the therapeutic setting with an awareness of particular factors which may be potential sources of problems unique to many marriages.

The results from this study imply that society may currently be moving toward an appreciation of the feminine attributes. Counselors, especially those who work zealously to ensure that femininity be given a more positive image, may need to reconsider whether it is still appropriate to continue the developing of techniques which attempt the "androgynization" of both males and females. Perhaps more important, energies can be profitably invested if therapeutic intervention and training would utilize the differences in sex-role types as avenues for encouraging appreciation and understanding of developmental differences in experience, expression and orientation to life. This will assist

therapists in being prepared to address traditional as well as changing values which these sex-role types represent.

The tendency for marital adjustment to increase as self-complexity increases suggests that there are benefits to be derived when individuals develop more facets of themselves. Thus rather than making the couples perceived frustrations the only focus of therapy, therapists may need to help individuals within relationships explore and develop many more aspects of their lives. This expansion of their own lives could enable individuals to bring new challenges and avenues of adventure to their marriage relationship.

### Summary

This study investigated a) whether marital partners' sex-role types and self-complexities were related to their marital adjustment, and b) whether the differences accounted for by these two variables existed in the marital adjustment of blacks and whites. Chapter One presented the statement of the problems, the need for the study, the purpose of the study, the definition of terms to be used in the study, and the organization of the remainder of the study.

Chapter Two reviewed the literature related to marital adjustment, sex-roles and self-complexity. The review included sections about measuring marital adjustment, research on marital adjustment, blacks and marital adjustment, marital adjustment and mate selections, blacks and mate selection.

It included areas on sex-roles, masculinity, femininity, blacks and the politics of sex-role stereotypes, androgyny, cross-sex behavior and gender identity, research on androgyny, androgyny and marital adjustment, self-complexity, self-concept and marital adjustment, and social change.

Chapter Three described the population and sample, hypotheses, instrumentation, procedures, analysis of data and the limitations of the study. Chapter Four presented the results and discussed the findings. The findings indicated that there was a significant relationship between self-complexity and marital adjustment and between children and marital adjustment. There were significant associations between sex-role type and race and between sex-role type and age. There were significant race differences but no sex differences in marital adjustment. Sex-role type differences were present in the marital adjustment of blacks but not of whites, while "typol" differences were noticeable for both black and white couples. Finally, educational differences in marital adjustment were found only among white females with a feminine sex-role type.

### Recommendations

An examination of the findings of this study suggest that research in the following areas can be beneficial:

1. A factor analysis study should be conducted on items of the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Inventory,

Bem's Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) and Ziller's Self-Complexity Scale to determine exactly which items are important for successful dyadic interaction in marital adjustment. Such analysis could yield more information on the suitability of these instruments as marital adjustment measures.

2. Validity studies on the Locke-Wallace, the BSRI and the Ziller's Self-Complexity Scale should be conducted on other black and white samples to determine whether or not the races have different response patterns to selected items on these instruments.
3. Survey studies should be conducted on the BSRI followed by an item analysis to determine the more ambiguous and difficult words to which research subjects are not responding. These words should be replaced with others that are more easily recognized and understood. When this is accomplished, a validity study of the BSRI on a large heterogeneous sample can yield even more dependable information on sex-role types.
4. A replication study of this research should be conducted in a geographically different region with an even larger heterogeneous but balanced sample to examine the reliability of the findings of this study. Replication should be carried out under approximately equivalent conditions as those used in this study. Replication studies with blacks of different cultures could give

useful information as to whether the race differences found in this research are indeed race differences, or perhaps reflecting differences within cultures.

5. Research can be enhanced if future investigations utilize additional forms of data collecting such as interviews, observations and longitudinal approaches to examine fundamentally different value systems of blacks and whites. Then marital adjustment investigation will include the races' own criteria of a well-adjusted marriage.
6. Research studies need to be conducted to determine how and why children are such a source of frustration to marital adjustment. Such concrete evidence from researchers could give clinicians a very viable tool upon which to structure pre-marital and marital counseling relative to how couples make preparation for children in their relationships.

APPENDIX A  
LOCKE-WALLACE MARITAL ADJUSTMENT INVENTORY

All the questions can be answered by placing a check next to the appropriate answer. Please fill out all items. If you cannot give the exact answer to a question, answer the best you can. Give the answers that best fit your marriage at the present time. Thank you very much.

---

1. Have you ever wished you had not married?
  - a. Frequently \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. Occasionally \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. Rarely \_\_\_\_\_
2. If you had your life to live over again would you:
  - a. Marry the same person \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. Marry a different person \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. Not marry at all \_\_\_\_\_
3. Do husband and wife engage in outside activities together?
  - a. All of them \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. Some of them \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. Few of them \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. None of them \_\_\_\_\_
4. In leisure time, which do you prefer?
  - a. Both husband and wife to stay at home \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. Both to be on the go \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. One to be on the go and other to stay at home \_\_\_\_\_
5. Do you and your mate generally talk things over together?
  - a. Never \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. Now and then \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. Almost always \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. Always \_\_\_\_\_

6. How often do you kiss your mate?

- a. Every day \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Now and then \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Almost never \_\_\_\_\_

7. Check any of the following items which you think are difficulties in your marriage.

- Mate's attempt to control my spending money \_\_\_\_\_
- Other difficulties over money \_\_\_\_\_
- Religious differences \_\_\_\_\_
- Different amusement interests \_\_\_\_\_
- Lack of mutual friends \_\_\_\_\_
- Constant bickering \_\_\_\_\_
- Interference of in-laws \_\_\_\_\_
- Lack of mutual affection (no longer in love) \_\_\_\_\_
- Unsatisfying sex relations \_\_\_\_\_
- Selfishness and lack of cooperation \_\_\_\_\_
- Adultery \_\_\_\_\_
- Desire to have children \_\_\_\_\_
- Sterility of husband or wife \_\_\_\_\_
- Venereal diseases \_\_\_\_\_
- Mate paid attention to (became familiar with) another person \_\_\_\_\_
- Desertion \_\_\_\_\_
- Non-support \_\_\_\_\_
- Drunkenness \_\_\_\_\_
- Gambling \_\_\_\_\_
- Ill health \_\_\_\_\_
- Mate sent to jail \_\_\_\_\_
- Other reasons \_\_\_\_\_

8. How many things satisfy you most about your marriage?

- a. Nothing \_\_\_\_\_
- b. One thing \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Two things \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Three or more \_\_\_\_\_

9. When disagreements arise they generally result in:

- a. Husband giving in \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Wife giving in \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Neither giving in \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Agreement by mutual give and take \_\_\_\_\_

10. What is the total number of times you left mate or mate left you because of conflict?

- a. No time \_\_\_\_\_
- b. One or more times \_\_\_\_\_



11. How frequently do you and your mate get on each other's nerves around the house?
- Never \_\_\_\_\_
  - Occasionally \_\_\_\_\_
  - Frequently \_\_\_\_\_
  - Almost always \_\_\_\_\_
  - Always \_\_\_\_\_
12. What are your feelings on sex relations between you and your mate?
- Very enjoyable \_\_\_\_\_
  - Enjoyable \_\_\_\_\_
  - Tolerable \_\_\_\_\_
  - Disgusting \_\_\_\_\_
  - Very disgusting \_\_\_\_\_
13. What are your mate's feelings on sex relations with you?
- Very enjoyable \_\_\_\_\_
  - Enjoyable \_\_\_\_\_
  - Tolerable \_\_\_\_\_
  - Disgusting \_\_\_\_\_
  - Very disgusting \_\_\_\_\_

State approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between husband and wife on the following items:

| Check one<br>Column for<br>Each Item<br>Below                                  | Always<br>Agree | Almost<br>Always<br>Agree | Occasion-<br>ally<br>Disagree | Frequent-<br>ly<br>Disagree | Almost<br>Always<br>Disagree | Always<br>Disagree |
|--|-----------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|
| 14. Handling<br>family<br>finances<br>(Example:<br>install-<br>ment<br>buying) |                 |                           |                               |                             |                              |                    |
| 15. Matters<br>of recre-<br>ation<br>(Example:<br>going to<br>dances)          |                 |                           |                               |                             |                              |                    |

| Check One<br>Column for<br>Each Item<br>Below   | Always<br>Agree | Almost<br>Always<br>Agree | Occasion-<br>ally<br>Disagree | Frequent-<br>ly<br>Disagree | Almost<br>Always<br>Disagree | Always<br>Disagree |
|---|-----------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|
| 16. Demon-<br>stration<br>of affec-<br>tion<br>(Example:<br>frequency<br>of kiss-<br>ing) |                 |                           |                               |                             |                              |                    |
| 17. Friends<br>(Example:<br>dislike<br>of mate's<br>friends)                              |                 |                           |                               |                             |                              |                    |
| 18. Intimate<br>relations<br>(Example:<br>sex rela-<br>tions)                             |                 |                           |                               |                             |                              |                    |
| 19. Ways of<br>dealing<br>with<br>in-laws   |                 |                           |                               |                             |                              |                    |
| 20. The<br>amount<br>time<br>that<br>should be<br>spent to-<br>gether                     |                 |                           |                               |                             |                              |                    |
| 21. Conven-<br>tionality<br>(Example:<br>right,<br>good, or<br>proper<br>conduct)         |                 |                           |                               |                             |                              |                    |

| Check One<br>Column for<br>Each Item<br>Below                                     | Always<br>Agree | Almost<br>Always<br>Agree | Occasion-<br>ally<br>Disagree | Frequent-<br>ly<br>Disagree | Almost<br>Always<br>Disagree | Always<br>Disagree |
|---|-----------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|
| 22. Aims,<br>goals,<br>and<br>things<br>believed<br>to be<br>important<br>in life |                 |                           |                               |                             |                              |                    |

23. On the scale line below check the mark which best describes the degree of happiness, everything considered of your marriage. The middle point, "happy" represents the degree of happiness which most people get from marriage, and the scale gradually ranges on one side to those few who experience extreme joy in marriage and on the other to those few who are very unhappy in marriage.

|   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * | * | * | * | * | * |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|

Scoring:  
Very Unhappy

Happy

Perfectly  
Happy

APPENDIX B  
BEM SEX-ROLE INVENTORY

Place a number from the scale below beside each adjective to indicate how well the adjective describes you.  
Please do not leave any adjective unmarked. Thank you.

| 1                                | 2                      | 3                                     | 4                    | 5             | 6               | 7                                  |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------|---------------|-----------------|------------------------------------|
| NEVER OR<br>ALMOST<br>NEVER TRUE | USUALLY<br>NOT<br>TRUE | SOMETIMES BUT<br>INFREQUENTLY<br>TRUE | OCCASIONALLY<br>TRUE | OFTEN<br>TRUE | USUALLY<br>TRUE | ALWAYS OR<br>ALMOST<br>ALWAYS TRUE |

|                       |  |
|-----------------------|--|
| Self Reliant          |  |
| Yielding              |  |
| Helpful               |  |
| Defend my own beliefs |  |
| Cheerful              |  |
| Moody                 |  |
| Independent           |  |
| Shy                   |  |

|                                  |  |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Reliable                         |  |
| Analytical                       |  |
| Sympathetic                      |  |
| Jealous                          |  |
| Have leadership abilities        |  |
| Sensitive to the needs of others |  |
| Truthful                         |  |
| Willing to take risks            |  |

|                         |  |
|-------------------------|--|
| Warm                    |  |
| Solemn                  |  |
| Willing to take a stand |  |
| Tender                  |  |
| Friendly                |  |
| Aggressive              |  |
| Gullible                |  |
| Inefficient             |  |

| 1                                | 2                      | 3                                     | 4                    | 5             | 6               | 7                                  |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------|---------------|-----------------|------------------------------------|
| NEVER OR<br>ALMOST<br>NEVER TRUE | USUALLY<br>NOT<br>TRUE | SOMETIMES BUT<br>INFREQUENTLY<br>TRUE | OCCASIONALLY<br>TRUE | OFTEN<br>TRUE | USUALLY<br>TRUE | ALWAYS OR<br>ALMOST<br>ALWAYS TRUE |

|                       |  |                                 |  |                              |  |
|-----------------------|--|---------------------------------|--|------------------------------|--|
| Conscientious         |  | Understanding                   |  | Act as a leader              |  |
| Athletic              |  | Secretive                       |  | Childlike                    |  |
| Affectionate          |  | Make decisions<br>easily        |  | Adaptable                    |  |
| Theatrical            |  | Compassionate                   |  | Individualistic              |  |
| Assertive             |  | Sincere                         |  | Do not use harsh<br>language |  |
| Flatterable           |  | Self-<br>sufficient             |  | Unsystematic                 |  |
| Happy                 |  | Eager to sooth<br>hurt feelings |  | Competitive                  |  |
| Strong<br>personality |  | Conceited                       |  | Love children                |  |
| Loyal                 |  | Dominant                        |  | Tactful                      |  |
| Unpredic-<br>table    |  | Soft-spoken                     |  | Ambitious                    |  |
| Forceful              |  | Likable                         |  | Gentle                       |  |
| Feminine              |  | Masculine                       |  | Conventional                 |  |

APPENDIX C  
ZILLER SELF-COMPLEXITY SCALE

INSTRUCTIONS: Here is a list of words. You are to read the words quickly and check each one that you think describes YOU. You may check as many or as few words as you like - but be HONEST. Don't check words that tell what kind of a person you should be. Check words that tell what kind of a person you really are.

- |                  |                    |                    |
|------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1. ___able       | 21. ___charming    | 41. ___fierce      |
| 2. ___active     | 22. ___cheerful    | 42. ___foolish     |
| 3. ___afraid     | 23. ___clean       | 43. ___friendly    |
| 4. ___alone      | 24. ___clever      | 44. ___funny       |
| 5. ___angry      | 25. ___comfortable | 45. ___generous    |
| 6. ___anxious    | 26. ___content     | 46. ___gentle      |
| 7. ___ashamed    | 27. ___cruel       | 47. ___glad        |
| 8. ___attractive | 28. ___curious     | 48. ___good        |
| 9. ___bad        | 29. ___delicate    | 49. ___great       |
| 10. ___beautiful | 30. ___delightful  | 50. ___happy       |
| 11. ___big       | 31. ___different   | 51. ___humble      |
| 12. ___bitter    | 32. ___difficult   | 52. ___idle        |
| 13. ___bold      | 33. ___dirty       | 53. ___important   |
| 14. ___brave     | 34. ___dull        | 54. ___independent |
| 15. ___bright    | 35. ___dumb        | 55. ___jealous     |
| 16. ___busy      | 36. ___eager       | 56. ___kind        |
| 17. ___calm      | 37. ___fair        | 57. ___large       |
| 18. ___capable   | 38. ___faithful    | 58. ___lazy        |
| 19. ___careful   | 39. ___false       | 59. ___little      |
| 20. ___careless  | 40. ___fine        | 60. ___lively      |

- |                  |                    |                   |
|------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| 61. ___lonely    | 78. ___quick       | 95. ___strong     |
| 62. ___loud      | 79. ___responsible | 96. ___sweet      |
| 63. ___lucky     | 80. ___rough       | 97. ___terrible   |
| 64. ___mild      | 81. ___rude        | 98. ___ugly       |
| 65. ___miserable | 82. ___sad         | 99. ___unhappy    |
| 66. ___modest    | 83. ___selfish     | 100. ___unusual   |
| 67. ___neat      | 84. ___sensible    | 101. ___useful    |
| 68. ___old       | 85. ___serious     | 102. ___valuable  |
| 69. ___patient   | 86. ___sharp       | 103. ___warm      |
| 70. ___peaceful  | 87. ___silly       | 104. ___weak      |
| 71. ___perfect   | 88. ___slow        | 105. ___wild      |
| 72. ___pleasant  | 89. ___small       | 106. ___wise      |
| 73. ___polite    | 90. ___smart       | 107. ___wonderful |
| 74. ___poor      | 91. ___soft        | 108. ___wrong     |
| 75. ___popular   | 92. ___special     | 109. ___young     |
| 76. ___proud     | 93. ___strange     |                   |
| 77. ___quiet     | 94. ___stupid      |                   |

APPENDIX D  
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female \_\_\_\_\_ Age \_\_\_\_\_

Race \_\_\_\_\_ Occupation \_\_\_\_\_

How many children do you have? \_\_\_\_\_

How many children are now living in your home? \_\_\_\_\_

If this is not your first marriage, how many times have you  
previously been married? \_\_\_\_\_

How many years have you been married to your present spouse?  
\_\_\_\_\_

Highest level of education:

Elementary \_\_\_\_\_

Junior High \_\_\_\_\_

Senior High \_\_\_\_\_

One year college \_\_\_\_\_

Two years college \_\_\_\_\_

Three years college \_\_\_\_\_

BA \_\_\_\_\_

Graduate \_\_\_\_\_

Do you attend church? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_



APPENDIX E  
DIRECTIONS TO PARTICIPANTS

Dear Participant,

This packet of materials contains three questionnaires which are being used to collect information about factors related to marital adjustment. The questionnaires are 1) the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Inventory, 2) the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, and 3) the Ziller Self-Complexity Scale. A demographic data sheet is also included.

You are being asked to complete this set of materials without communicating with your spouse. It is important for purposes of this research that you do not discuss your responses with each other until the questionnaires have been completed, the packets sealed and returned. The questionnaires should be completed in 30 minutes.

Please do not put your name on the questionnaire. This is especially important so that you feel free to answer honestly and without any concern about being identified. Individual information will be kept confidential. However, general findings will be summarized and made available to participants who request a summary of the findings.

If you have any questions regarding the questionnaires or the research being conducted, please do not hesitate to contact me at 392-6101 or 377-8529. Thank you for participating.

Sincerely,

Lainée James

## APPENDIX F

### STANDARDIZED VERBAL EXPLANATION TO MINISTERS AND DIRECTORS

My name is Lainée James. I am a graduate student in the Department of Counselor Education at the University of Florida. I am currently in the process of conducting a research study for the completion of a doctoral degree. The study will examine some of the personality variables which might be affecting or related to marital adjustment. My interest comes as a result of the increasing societal concern about rising divorce rates and the need to identify variables affecting marital adjustment.

In order to conduct the study, I will need to have couples anonymously complete a questionnaire battery which will take approximately 30 minutes to be completed. I would be grateful if you would inform your congregation/volunteers about the study and invite them to call me at 392-6101, Ext. 6, or 377-8529 if they would like to serve as voluntary participants. I will mail you an explanation of the study which you can read to them, and will appreciate your placing it on your bulletin board. Thank you for your interest in and willingness to participate.

Ministers are also given an alternative plan for assist-  
in securing participants . . . There is an alternative plan

by which you can assist me in securing participants for this study. I can also contact members directly by phone and solicit their assistance in the study, if I can secure your permission to use your church directory.

Thank you.

APPENDIX G

FOLLOW-UP "THANK YOU" LETTER TO  
MINISTERS AND DIRECTORS

Rev. \_\_\_\_\_  
P.O. Box 0000  
Gainesville, FL 32601

Dear \_\_\_\_\_

A few days ago, I spoke with you on the phone requesting your cooperation in assisting me in securing couples from your church/center to participate in a study on 'Variables Related to Marital Adjustment.'

I greatly appreciate your interest in and willingness to participate in the study. Enclosed please find a verbal explanation of the study as I described it to you previously. The stamped-addressed envelope is for the return of the church directory.\*

Thanks for taking the time to read and explain to your audience/volunteers. Thanks for placing the explanation on your bulletin board. Please remind couples interested in participating to call me at the following numbers: 392-6101 between 8:30 AM and 4:30 PM, or at 377-8259 at any other time. These numbers where I can be reached are also given in the explanation.

Thanks again for your help.

Sincerely,

Lainée M. James  
Doctoral Candidate  
Department of Counselor  
Education  
University of Florida  
Gainesville, Florida 32601

\*P.S. This final sentence was placed in letters to ministers only.

APPENDIX H

STANDARDIZED VERBAL EXPLANATION  
TO PARTICIPATING COUPLES

My name is Lainée James. I am presently conducting a research for the completion of a doctoral degree at the University of Florida. My study focuses on personality factors which might be affecting marital adjustment. This is of interest to me because of the rising divorce rates and the need to help identify some of the factors which may be related to the quality of adjustment in marriages.

In order to conduct the study, I need to have you and your spouse anonymously complete a questionnaire battery which will take approximately 30 minutes. It is important that the most accurate results are obtained for the study. Therefore you and your spouse are asked to take these tests without conversing about them until after you both have completed your packet, placed them in the envelope and sealed them. Your responses will be confidential. Please do not put your names on the questionnaires.

I will deliver the packet of materials at your home during the week of the date of delivery; any day within that week which is most convenient to you. If collecting them will inconvenience you in any way, I will enclose a stamped

addressed envelope for returning them. Thank you for your willingness to participate.

APPENDIX I  
SUMMARY OF TABLES

Table 11  
Demographic Data for the 207 Participating  
Married Couples

Sex

|        |     |
|--------|-----|
| Male   | 207 |
| Female | 207 |

Age

|                    |       | <u>Blacks</u> | <u>Whites</u> |
|--------------------|-------|---------------|---------------|
| Mean               | 35.75 | 35.58         | 35.88         |
| Standard Deviation | 11.09 | 10.94         | 15.47         |

Race

|        |     |
|--------|-----|
| Whites | 113 |
| Blacks | 94  |

Number of Children

|           |     |
|-----------|-----|
| None      | 119 |
| 1 or 2    | 198 |
| 3 or more | 97  |

Number of Children at Home

|           |     |
|-----------|-----|
| None      | 139 |
| 1 or 2    | 206 |
| 3 or more | 69  |

Number of Times Married

|               |     |
|---------------|-----|
| Once          | 173 |
| Twice         | 30  |
| Three or more | 4   |



Table 11--continued

Number of Years Married to Present Spouse

|                    |    |
|--------------------|----|
| 1 year             | 25 |
| 2 years            | 25 |
| 3-5 years          | 33 |
| 6-10 years         | 41 |
| 11-15 years        | 32 |
| 16-25 years        | 33 |
| More than 25 years | 18 |

Highest Education Level

|             |     |
|-------------|-----|
| Grade 1-8   | 10  |
| High school | 89  |
| AA          | 87  |
| BA          | 95  |
| Graduate    | 133 |

Church

|                      |     |
|----------------------|-----|
| Not attending church | 303 |
| Attending church     | 111 |

Table 12  
 Percentage Breakdown of Demographic Data  
 for 207 Participating Married Couples

| Variable                | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------------|-----------|------------|
| <u>Sex</u>              |           |            |
| Male                    | 207       | 50         |
| Female                  | 207       | 50         |
| <u>Race</u>             |           |            |
| Blacks                  | 188       | 45.41      |
| Whites                  | 226       | 54.59      |
| <u>Age</u>              |           |            |
| Under 20                | 7         | 1.69       |
| 20-22                   | 18        | 4.35       |
| 23-25                   | 41        | 9.90       |
| 26-29                   | 69        | 11.67      |
| 30-35                   | 118       | 28.50      |
| 36-40                   | 51        | 12.32      |
| Over 40                 | 110       | 26.57      |
| <u>Children</u>         |           |            |
| None                    | 119       | 26.8       |
| 1 or 2                  | 198       | 47.8       |
| 3 or more               | 97        | 23.43      |
| <u>Children at Home</u> |           |            |
| None                    | 139       | 33.57      |
| 1 or 2                  | 206       | 49.76      |
| 3 or more               | 69        | 16.67      |

Table 12--continued

| Variable                               | Frequency     | Percentage |
|--|---------------|------------|
| <u>Number of Times Married</u>         |               |            |
| Once                                   | 173 (couples) | 88.57      |
| Twice                                  | 30            | 14.49      |
| 3 or more                              | 4             | 1.9        |
| <u>Years Married to Present Spouse</u> |               |            |
| 1 year                                 | 25            | 12.07      |
| 2 years                                | 25            | 12.07      |
| 3-5 years                              | 33            | 15.94      |
| 6-10 years                             | 41            | 14.98      |
| 11-15 years                            | 32            | 15.46      |
| 16-25 years                            | 33            | 15.49      |
| More than 25 years                     | 18            | 8.70       |
| <u>High Educational Level</u>          |               |            |
| Grades 1-8                             | 10            | 2.42       |
| High school                            | 89            | 21.50      |
| AA                                     | 87            | 21.01      |
| BA                                     | 95            | 22.95      |
| Graduate                               | 133           | 32.13      |
| <u>Church</u>                          |               |            |
| Attending church                       | 111           | 26.81      |
| Not attending church                   | 303           | 73.19      |

Table 13  
Means and Standard Deviations of Scores on  
Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Inventory  
(by Sex and Race)

| Marital Adjustment    | Male   | Female | Total Sample |
|-----------------------|--------|--------|--------------|
| <u>Blacks</u>         |        |        |              |
| Mean                  | 101.88 | 101.66 | 101.77       |
| Standard<br>Deviation | 16.39  | 16.24  | 16.27        |
| <u>Whites</u>         |        |        |              |
| Mean                  | 111.96 | 110.57 | 111.27       |
| Standard<br>Deviation | 14.87  | 15.45  | 15.14        |
| <u>Total Sample</u>   |        |        |              |
| Mean                  | 107.43 | 106.48 | 106.96       |
| Standard<br>Deviation | 16.32  | 16.39  | 16.35        |

Table 14

Pearson's Product Moment Correlations of Continuous Variables for Black Males (Showing Correlation Coefficients and Probability)

|                       | Self-<br>Complexity | Children      | Children<br>Home | Years<br>Married | Times<br>Married | Age           | Education     |
|-----------------------|---------------------|---------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|---------------|---------------|
| Marital<br>Adjustment | 0.24*<br>0.02       | -0.11<br>0.30 | 0.07<br>0.48     | -0.04<br>0.70    | 0.01<br>0.97     | -0.05<br>0.65 | 0.17<br>0.10  |
| Self-Complexity       |                     | 0.12<br>0.27  | -0.10<br>0.36    | -0.19<br>0.07    | 0.15<br>0.17     | -0.14<br>0.18 | 0.05<br>0.64  |
| Children              |                     |               | 0.38<br>0.00     | 0.58<br>0.00     | 0.02<br>0.87     | 0.56<br>0.00  | 0.34<br>0.00  |
| Children at<br>Home   |                     |               |                  | 0.16<br>0.13     | -0.19<br>0.06    | 0.10<br>0.36  | -0.08<br>0.45 |
| Years Married         |                     |               |                  |                  | 0.13<br>0.21     | 0.84<br>0.00  | -0.23<br>0.03 |
| Times Married         |                     |               |                  |                  |                  | 0.18<br>0.08  | 0.12<br>0.27  |
| Age                   |                     |               |                  |                  |                  |               | 0.28<br>0.07  |

\*p &lt; .05

Table 15

Pearson's Product Moment Correlations of Continuous Variables for Black Females (Showing Correlation Coefficients and Probability)

|                    | Self-Complexity | Children      | Children Home | Years Married | Times Married | Age           | Education      |
|--------------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|
| Marital Adjustment | 0.09<br>0.37    | -0.18<br>0.09 | -0.12<br>0.24 | -0.10<br>0.32 | 0.01<br>0.96  | -0.15<br>0.16 | 0.24*<br>0.02  |
| Self-Complexity    |                 | -0.01<br>0.95 | -0.14<br>0.19 | -0.00<br>0.99 | 0.09<br>0.36  | -0.05<br>0.58 | -0.14<br>0.19  |
| Children           |                 |               | 0.40<br>0.00  | 0.62<br>0.00  | -0.06<br>0.59 | 0.45<br>0.00  | 0.40<br>0.00   |
| Children at Home   |                 |               |               | 0.02<br>0.11  | 0.06<br>0.86  | 0.06<br>0.59  | -0.21*<br>0.04 |
| Years Married      |                 |               |               |               | 0.18<br>0.09  | -0.71<br>0.00 | -0.12<br>0.26  |
| Times Married      |                 |               |               |               |               | 0.20<br>0.05  | -0.09<br>0.41  |
| Age                |                 |               |               |               |               |               | -0.12<br>0.23  |

\*p<.05

Table 16

Pearson's Product Moment Correlations of Continuous Variables for White Males (Showing Correlation Coefficients and Probability)

|                    | Self-Complexity | Children      | Children Home | Years Married | Times Married | Age           | Education     |
|--------------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Marital Adjustment | 0.03<br>0.76    | 0.03<br>0.75  | -0.14<br>0.14 | -0.11<br>0.27 | 0.03<br>0.77  | 0.01<br>0.93  | 0.13<br>0.19  |
| Self-Complexity    |                 | -0.03<br>0.79 | -0.13<br>0.16 | -0.11<br>0.25 | 0.17<br>0.07  | -0.05<br>0.58 | 0.03<br>0.79  |
| Children           |                 |               | 0.45<br>0.00  | 0.42<br>0.00  | 0.32<br>0.00  | 0.49<br>0.00  | -0.07<br>0.45 |
| Children at Home   |                 |               |               | 0.18<br>0.05  | 0.04<br>0.67  | 0.09<br>0.36  | -0.14<br>0.15 |
| Years Married      |                 |               |               |               | -0.24<br>0.01 | 0.67<br>0.00  | 0.07<br>0.46  |
| Times Married      |                 |               |               |               |               | 0.20<br>0.03  | -0.11<br>0.25 |
| Age                |                 |               |               |               |               |               | -0.02<br>0.85 |

Table 17

Pearson's Product Moment Correlations of Continuous Variables for White Females (Showing Correlation Coefficients and Probability)

|                       | Self-<br>Complexity | Children<br>Home | Years<br>Married | Times<br>Married | Age          | Education      |
|-----------------------|---------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|--------------|----------------|
| Marital<br>Adjustment | 0.19*<br>0.05       | -0.03<br>0.74    | 0.06<br>0.54     | 0.04<br>0.68     | 0.06<br>0.56 | 0.18*<br>0.05  |
| Self-Complexity       |                     | -0.05<br>.60     | -0.01<br>0.92    | 0.05<br>0.60     | 0.05<br>0.58 | 0.05<br>0.62   |
| Children              |                     | 0.48<br>0.00     | 0.44<br>0.00     | 0.24<br>0.01     | 0.45<br>0.00 | -0.13<br>0.18  |
| Children at<br>Home   |                     |                  | 0.16<br>0.09     | 0.04<br>0.69     | 0.07<br>0.44 | 0.11<br>0.26   |
| Years Married         |                     |                  |                  | 0.17<br>0.08     | 0.75<br>0.00 | -0.13<br>0.19  |
| Times Married         |                     |                  |                  |                  | 0.17<br>0.08 | -0.24*<br>0.04 |
| Age                   |                     |                  |                  |                  |              | -0.07<br>0.46  |

\*p&lt;.05



Table 18

Analysis of Main Effects of Mean Locke-Wallace  
Scores on Demographic Variables (N = 414)

| Source of Variation | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Value |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Sex                 | 1                  | 473.638         | 2.13    |
| Age                 | 6                  | 266.267         | 0.20    |
| Years Married       | 5                  | 3439.804        | 3.10*   |
| Times Married       | 2                  | 75.58           | 0.17    |
| Education           | 4                  | 4664.543        | 5.25*** |
| Children at Home    | 2                  | 673.055         | 1.51    |
| Race                | 1                  | 5927.682        | 26.88** |
| Sex-Role Type       | 3                  | 2695.840        | 4.05*   |
| Complexity          | 1                  | 777.907         | 3.50    |
| Explained           | 25                 | 22144.58        | 3.99**  |
| Residual            | 382                | 84858.63        |         |
| TOTAL               | 407                | 107003.213      |         |

Note.  $R^2 = 21$  percent

\* $p < .01$

\*\* $p < .0001$

\*\*\* $p < .0005$

Table 19

Analysis of Main Effects of Mean Locke-Wallace Scores  
on Class and Continuous Variables (N = 414)

| Source of Variation    | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Value |
|------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Sex                    | 1                  | 3.327           | 0.02    |
| Years Married Category | 5                  | 4385.1123       | 3.99*   |
| Times Married          | 2                  | 31.637          |         |
| Educational Category   | 4                  | 1724.5          | 1.96    |
| Children at Home       | 2                  | 685.924         | 1.56    |
| Race                   | 1                  | 4184.830        | 19.04** |
| Sex-Role Type          | 1                  | 35.284          | 0.16    |
| Typol                  | 8                  | 3043.807        | 1.73    |
| Occupation Category    | 20                 | 5091.660        | 1.16    |
| Church                 | 1                  | 383.986         | 1.75    |
| Children               | 1                  | 223.112         | 1.02    |
| Age Category           | 1                  | 198.536         | 0.90    |
| Self-Complexity        | 1                  | 944.404         | 4.30*   |
| Explained              | 48                 | 27475.043       | 2.60*   |
| Residual               | 340                | 102196.118      |         |
| TOTAL                  |                    |                 |         |

\*p<.05

\*\*p<.0001

Table 20  
Adjusted Means for Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment  
Inventory (by Race and Sex)

| Race         | Sex    | Adjusted Means | Std Err of<br>Adjusted Means |
|--------------|--------|----------------|------------------------------|
| Black        | Male   | 101.90         | 1.66                         |
|              | Female | 102.14         |                              |
| White        | Male   | 111.96         | 1.41                         |
|              | Female | 110.81         |                              |
| Total Sample | Male   | 106.74         | 1.09                         |
|              | Female | 106.53         |                              |

Note. Std Err is the abbreviation for Standard Error

Table 21

One-Way Analysis of Variance on Mean Locke-Wallace  
Scores on Sex-Role Type (by Race)

| Race   | Source of Variation | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Ratio |
|--------|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Blacks | Self-Complexity     | 1                  | 807.20          | 3.36    |
|        | Sex-Role Type       | 3                  | 2689.94         | 3.74*   |
|        | Explained           | 4                  | 4036.12         | 4.20**  |
|        | Residual            | 181                | 43438.51        |         |
|        | TOTAL               | 185                | 47474.63        |         |
| Whites | Self-Complexity     | 1                  | 487.81          | 2.19    |
|        | Sex-Role Type       | 3                  | 1301.89         | 1.95    |
|        | Explained           | 4                  | 1888.02         |         |
|        | Residual            | 220                | 48931.56        |         |
|        | TOTAL               | 224                | 50819.58        |         |

\* $p < .01$

\*\* $p < .005$

Table 22

Pairwise Comparison of Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment  
Means (by Race and Sex-Role Type)

| Sex-Role Type    | Blacks<br>Adjusted Means | Whites<br>Adjusted Means |
|------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Masculine        | 102.47                   | 108.28                   |
| Feminine         | 104.62                   | 112.03                   |
| Undifferentiated | 85.57*                   | 113.30                   |
| Androgynous      | 102.36                   | 114.09                   |

\* $p < .05$

Table 23

One-Way Analysis of Variance of "Typo1" Differences  
on Mean Locke-Wallace Scores (by Race)

| Race   | Source of Variation | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Ratio |
|--------|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Blacks | Self-Complexity     | 1                  | 1039.01         | 4.33*   |
|        | Typo1               | 9                  | 4173.12         | 1.93*   |
|        | Explained           | 10                 | 5519.30         | 2.30*   |
|        | Residual            | 175                | 41955.33        |         |
|        | TOTAL               | 185                | 47474.63        |         |
| Whites | Self-Complexity     | 1                  | 453.19          | 2.08    |
|        | Typo1               | 7                  | 3075.45         | 2.01*   |
|        | Explained           | 8                  | 3661.58         | 2.10*   |
|        | Residual            | 216                | 47158.00        |         |
|        | TOTAL               | 224                | 50819.58        |         |

\* $p < .05$

Table 24

Pairwise Comparison of "Typol" Differences on Adjusted Mean Locke-Wallace Scores (by Race)

| Typol | LS Mean**<br>for Blacks | Std Err*<br>LS Mean | LS Mean<br>for Whites | Std Err<br>LS Mean |
|-------|-------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| F-F   | 113.36                  | 7.74                | 116.97                | 5.23               |
| M-F   | 107.05                  | 2.74                | 108.46                | 1.69               |
| A-M   | 103.03                  | 2.00                | 111.84                | 2.16               |
| A-F   | 102.99                  | 2.45                | 116.40                | 2.15               |
| A-A   | 99.47                   | 3.11                | 111.84                | 2.16               |
| M-M   | 97.95                   | 4.90                | 104.20                | 3.70               |
| U-M   | 95.19                   | 10.95               | _____                 | _____              |
| U-U   | 93.33                   | 10.95               | _____                 | _____              |
| U-F   | 90.18                   | 6.37                | 109.58                | 7.43               |
| U-A   | 85.57                   | 6.94                | 114.77                | 4.70               |

Black U-A sig. lower ( $p < .05$ ) than F-F and M-F

White A-F sig. higher ( $p < .01$ ) than M-F and M-M

Note. The letters A, F, M and U represent Bem's Androgynous, Feminine, Masculine and Undifferentiated sex-role types.

\*Std Err is the abbreviation for Standard Error

\*\*LS Mean is the abbreviation for Least Square Mean

Table 25

Comparison of Locke-Wallace Adjusted and Self-Complexity (SC)  
Means for Different Sex-Role Types (by Race and Sex)

| Race &<br>Sex    | Sex-Role<br>Type      | Locke-Wallace<br>Means | SC<br>Means | N  |
|------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-------------|----|
| White<br>Females | Androgynous           | 112.65                 | 36.25       | 35 |
|                  | Feminine              | 111.89                 | 34.98       | 61 |
|                  | Masculine             | 105.47                 | 33.87       | 15 |
| White Males      | Androgynous           | 116.06                 | 38.21       | 33 |
|                  | Feminine              | 113.45                 | 38.09       | 11 |
|                  | Masculine             | 109.14                 | 34.62       | 63 |
|                  | Undifferen-<br>tiated | 112.52                 | 24.57       | 7  |
| Black<br>Females | Androgynous           | 103.31                 | 39.05       | 40 |
|                  | Feminine              | 103.76                 | 37.03       | 40 |
|                  | Masculine             | 97.01                  | 35.10       | 10 |
|                  | Undifferen-<br>tiated | 87.58                  | 26.75       | 4  |
| Black Males      | Androgynous           | 101.49                 | 41.24       | 37 |
|                  | Feminine              | 107.90                 | 43.00       | 4  |
|                  | Masculine             | 103.92                 | 39.46       | 46 |
|                  | Undifferen-<br>tiated | 82.40                  | 27.20       | 5  |



Table 26

Comparison of Locke-Wallace Adjusted and Self-Complexity (SC)  
Means for Different Educational Categories

| Race &<br>Sex    | Educational<br>Category | Locke-Wallace<br>Means | SC<br>Means | N  |
|------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|-------------|----|
| White<br>Females | Grades 1-8              | 107.50                 | 25.50       | 2  |
|                  | High school             | 102.30                 | 35.63       | 30 |
|                  | AA                      | 112.15                 | 34.15       | 27 |
|                  | BA                      | 115.31                 | 38.13       | 30 |
|                  | Graduate                | 111.45                 | 34.46       | 33 |
| White Males      | Grades 1-8              | NON-EST                | 56.0        | 1  |
|                  | High school             | 113.19                 | 32.53       | 15 |
|                  | AA                      | 102.37                 | 36.08       | 12 |
|                  | BA                      | 111.86                 | 35.04       | 28 |
|                  | Graduate                | 114.53                 | 35.52       | 58 |
| Black<br>Females | Grades 1-8              | 95.20                  | 31.00       | 2  |
|                  | High school             | 95.61                  | 39.62       | 29 |
|                  | AA                      | 103.60                 | 40.86       | 22 |
|                  | BA                      | 106.49                 | 32.48       | 23 |
|                  | Graduate                | 106.28                 | 35.78       | 18 |
| Black Males      | Grades 1-8              | 98.36                  | 30.40       | 5  |
|                  | High school             | 101.07                 | 41.68       | 25 |
|                  | AA                      | 101.78                 | 39.72       | 25 |
|                  | BA                      | 99.35                  | 33.38       | 13 |
|                  | Graduate                | 104.72                 | 42.83       | 24 |

Table 27

Two-Way Analysis of Co-Variance of Education and Sex-Role Type on Mean Locke-Wallace Scores for White Females

| Source of Variation                  | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Ratio |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Education                            | 4                  | 96.872          | 0.15    |
| Sex-Role Type                        | 2                  | 1262.05         | 2.94    |
| Education x Sex-Role Type            | 6                  | 2607.437        | 2.89*   |
| SC (Education x Sex-Role Type)       | 12                 | 4931.330        | 2.29*   |
| Children (Education x Sex-Role Type) | 9                  | 1117.272        | 0.81    |
| Explained                            | 33                 | 9221.59         | 1.30    |
| Error                                | 77                 | 16547.434       |         |
| TOTAL                                | 110                | 25769.027       |         |

Note.  $R^2 = 38$  percent

\* $p < .01$

Table 28

One-Way Analysis of Co-Variance of Mean Locke-Wallace Scores  
on Educational Category for the Feminine Sex-Role Type

| Source of Variation  | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Ratio |
|----------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Education            | 4                  | 2435.31         | 3.80*   |
| SC (Education        | 5                  | 1977.59         | 2.31    |
| Children (Education) | 4                  | 232.09          | 0.37    |
| Explained            | 13                 | 3177.06         | 1.14    |
| Residual             | 47                 | 100047.79       |         |
| TOTAL                | 60                 | 13224.85        |         |

\* $p < .05$

Table 29  
 Analysis of Co-Variance of Sex-Role Types on  
 Mean Locke-Wallace Scores (by Race and Sex)

| Race & Sex    | Source of Variation | Degrees of Freedom | Sums of Squares | F-Ratio |
|---------------|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Black Males   | Sex-Role Type       | 3                  | 1754.66         | 2.55    |
|               | SC (Sex-Role Type)  | 4                  | 2083.355        |         |
|               | Error               | 84                 | 19269.40        |         |
| Black Females | Sex-Role Type       | 3                  | 1210.09         | 1.62    |
|               | SC (Sex-Role Type)  | 4                  | 702.47          | 0.71    |
|               | Error               | 86                 | 21382.51        |         |
| White Males   | Sex-Role Type       | 3                  | 1424.78         | 2.20    |
|               | SC (Sex-Role Type)  | 4                  | 1131.01         | 1.31    |
|               | Error               | 106                | 22892.17        |         |
| White Females | Sex-Role Type       | 2                  | 1701.31         | 3.92*   |
|               | SC (Sex-Role Type)  | 3                  | 1734.24         | 2.67*   |
|               | Error               | 105                | 22767.09        |         |

Note. SC is the abbreviation used for Self-Complexity

\* $p < .05$

Table 30

Pairwise Comparisons of White Females Locke-Wallace Adjusted Means for Different Educational Categories

| Educational Category | Adjusted Means | Std Err of<br>Adjusted Means |
|----------------------|----------------|------------------------------|
| Grades 1-8           | NON-EST        | 5.40                         |
| High school          | 106.22*        | 5.40                         |
| AA                   | 111.47         | 3.71                         |
| BA                   | 120.63*        | 4.53                         |
| Graduate             | 112.62         | 4.06                         |

Note. Those with a BA had significantly higher marital adjustment than those with a high school education.

\* $p < .05$

Table 31

T-Test Differences on Age, Education and Number of Marriages for Blacks and Whites

| Race                       | Couples | Mean  | Std Dev | T      | Degrees<br>of Freedom |
|----------------------------|---------|-------|---------|--------|-----------------------|
| <u>Age</u>                 |         |       |         |        |                       |
| Blacks                     | 90      | 2.52  | 6.67    | 0.14** | 154                   |
| Whites                     | 113     | 2.40  | 4.90    | 0.14** | 201                   |
| <u>Education</u>           |         |       |         |        |                       |
| Blacks                     | 92      | -0.05 | 1.69    | -2.86* | 203                   |
| Whites                     | 113     | 0.68  | 1.99    | -2.81* | 203                   |
| <u>Number of Marriages</u> |         |       |         |        |                       |
| Blacks                     | 92      | 0.08  | 0.34    | 0.25** | 198                   |
| Whites                     | 114     | 0.06  | 0.50    | 0.24** | 204                   |

\*p < .005

\*\*p > .1

Table 32

Table of Race by Sex Controlling for the  
 Locke-Wallace Maritally Well-Adjusted  
 (Scores 100 +)

| Race  | Marital Adjustment |              | Total         |
|-------|--------------------|--------------|---------------|
|       | Male               | Female       |               |
| Black | 52<br>18.06%       | 57<br>19.99% | 109<br>37.85% |
| White | 92<br>31.94%       | 87<br>30.21% | 179<br>62.15% |
| TOTAL | 144<br>50%         | 144<br>50%   | 288<br>100%   |

Table 33  
Means and Standard Deviations of Locke-Wallace  
Scores for Different Occupational Categories  
(N = 414)

| Occupation                     | N  | Means  | Standard Deviation |
|--------------------------------|----|--------|--------------------|
| Students                       | 37 | 108.68 | 16.79              |
| Health                         | 33 | 101.61 | 18.21              |
| Education                      | 61 | 107.75 | 16.00              |
| Law                            | 6  | 111.67 | 18.08              |
| Theology                       | 4  | 121.00 | 13.34              |
| Administration                 | 6  | 119.50 | 8.01               |
| Managers                       | 11 | 105.64 | 7.23               |
| Secretaries and<br>Accountants | 62 | 106.82 | 14.34              |
| Sales                          | 26 | 103.04 | 17.08              |
| Domestic                       | 45 | 99.80  | 17.66              |
| Protective<br>Services         | 10 | 103.6  | 18.17              |
| Structural                     | 19 | 107.95 | 14.52              |
| University<br>Professors       | 57 | 113.11 | 14.51              |
|                                | 4  | 110.75 | 22.69              |
| Farming                        | 8  | 114.25 | 9.96               |
| Clothing                       | 3  | 114.33 | 2.31               |



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## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Lainée M. James was born in Charlotteville, Tobago, on April 1, 1945, to Jacob and Caroline James. She spent the first 21 years of her life in Trinidad and Tobago, the remainder being divided between living in Jamaica and the United States. She was graduated from Harmon High School, Scarborough, Tobago, in 1964, taught for two years and went on to receive a B.A. from West Indies College, Jamaica, majoring in English and history.

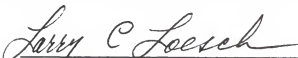
In 1970 she began graduate work in educational psychology at Andrews University in Michigan and completed an M.A. in 1971. Since 1971 she has explored her abilities in college and high school teaching, counseling, a wide range of psychological testing, research, writing and academic advising. Since 1979 she has been pursuing a Ph.D. in counselor education at the University of Florida. Her professional interests include clinical practice, research, writing and training of clinicians in the university setting.




I certify that I have read this study and that, in my opinion, it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

  
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Roderick J. McDavis, Chairman  
Professor of Counselor Education

I certify that I have read this study and that, in my opinion, it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

  
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Larry Loesch  
Professor of Counselor Education

I certify that I have read this study and that, in my opinion, it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

  
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